A STUDY OF VOLUNTARISM IN RECREATION
- Results from the 1981 Public Opinion Survey on Recreation

By
Mary Jane Cox
Phil Kreisel

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Alberta Recreation and Parks
Recreation Development Division
Planning Support Branch

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PREFACE

The Public Opinion Survey on Recreation (1981) was the third study conducted by Alberta Recreation and Parks in order to examine the differing viewpoints and participation patterns that people within Alberta had with respect to recreation and parks. It was felt that a better understanding of such patterns could aid in the development of policy. The study was conducted in February of 1981. A random sample of 4,700 Albertans received the survey by mail. A total of 2,425 individuals responded, representing 51.6% of the original sample.

The purpose of the present study is to provide a profile of the volunteer and non-volunteer by outlining their socio-demographic characteristics. The study examines the response patterns among volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to attitudes toward voluntarism and describes the relationships between these attitudes and the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. The data on voluntarism used in the study were drawn from question seven in Section III and questions five and six in Section IV of the questionnaire, while the socio-demographic information was drawn from the questions in Section IV. This material in its original form can be found in Appendix A.

The material in this report is organized into four chapters. The first chapter provides a review of past literature on voluntarism and includes sections on volunteer participation, benefits and roles of voluntarism, attitudes toward voluntarism, volunteer motivation and finally, socio-economic and demographic correlates of participation. The methods and procedures used in the study are presented in the second chapter. The third chapter covers the analysis and interpretation of the study results. The final chapter outlines the implications of the study results as well as provides recommendations for recreational practitioners and researchers.

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Chapter 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The overall purpose of this literature review is to provide a substantive outline of current research studies in voluntarism which will directly aid in the interpretation of the results of the 1981 Public Opinion Survey on Recreation.

Within this overall purpose, the review has two objectives. The first objective is to provide a background of literature which deals with the questions on voluntarism asked in the survey instrument. The second objective is to review the literature which relates voluntarism to the recreation sector.

The topic areas to be covered are as follows. The first section of the report introduces various concepts relevant to the study. The second section examines volunteer participation in terms of overall proportions of the population that volunteer. In addition, it looks at the amount of participation in various types of activities and organizations with special reference to the recreation sector. The third section examines the attitudes that people express about voluntarism in relation to actual roles and functions that voluntary associations and agencies serve in the community and society. The fourth section looks at the motivations of volunteers and examines the implications of this topic for the recreation sector. A socio-economic and demographic profile of volunteers is provided in the last section. This covers such topics as life-cycle variables, socio-economic status, and residential variables which have been determined to be correlates of volunteer participation. This section looks at these correlates in terms of volunteer participation in general, as well as volunteer participation in recreation associations.

Concepts and Definitions

Prior to beginning the review of literature on voluntarism, it is necessary to define a number of concepts and terms that will be used throughout the paper. These are listed in alphabetical order as follows:

1. Leisure: A mental construct which people tend to objectively define or describe as free time or non-work hours and subjectively associate with participation in a freely chosen activity, pastime, or state of mind that is rewarding to the person (based on Iso-Ahola, 1980 and his discussion of Neulinger's, 1974 findings).

2. Recreation: Participation in a leisure activity, usually with the intent and anticipation of it being rewarding to the person.

3. Voluntarism: Those activities of individuals, associations, and agencies arising out of a spontaneous, private effort to promote or advance some aspect of the common good, as this good is perceived by the person's participation in it (Manser and Cass, 1976:14).

4. Voluntary Associations: Organizations in which membership depends on the free choice of the individual while severance rests at the will of either party. Such groups, which may be large or small, are usually non-profit in nature and are organized to pursue mutual and personal interests of the members so as to achieve common goals. Offices are filled by election or selection and periodic and/or frequent meetings are generally held at a regular meeting place. The units are designed variously as formal groups, organizations, associations, clubs, societies, or special interest groups (Tomeh, 1973:92).

a. Instrumental Associations: Voluntary Associations whose activities are directed outside of the group of participants. Their objectives are instrumental in the sense that the activities pursued have functional consequences for some segment of the community, the community as a whole, or the larger society. These activities theoretically are a means to an end, and the participants derive gratification from the accomplishment of the goal and not the immediate situation. Some examples of this type of association are job-related associations, farmer organizations, business groups, labour unions, professional groups, PTA's, political organizations, and civic groups (Edwards and Booth, 1973:1-2; Tomeh, 1973:94).

b. Expressive Associations: Voluntary associations that engage in activities which provide immediate gratification and affectual support for its members. The consenquences of engaging in expressive activities are restricted solely to the participants themselves; attainment of the objectives has no effect on non-participants. In pursuing expressive ends, gratification is immediate, rather than deferred as in the case of instrumental activities. Some examples of this type of association are: interest and hobby groups, recreational clubs, and senior citizens groups (adapted from Edwards and Booth, 1973:2; Tomeh, 1973:94).

c. Instrumental-Expressive Associations: Voluntary associations that incorporate both instrumental and expressive functions and activities; some of which are directed outside of the group of participants and others which are directed within. Participant gratification is also mixed. Some reinforcement is deferred, dependent upon the accomplishment of the ends; some gratification is immediate, deriving from involvement in expressive activities. Some examples of this type of association are: church-related organizations, fraternal service clubs, Masons, and Legion groups (Edwards and Booth, 1973:2; Tomeh, 1973:94).

5. Volunteer: An individual who gives freely of his/her time and effort to an activity or service for primarily non-remunerative and non-coercive reasons (adapted from Henderson, 1981:208 and Smith, 1972:3).

Volunteer Participation

This section will consider two facets of volunteer participation. First, it will look at the amount of volunteer participation in the United States and Canada, specifically in terms of the actual percentages of the population that do volunteer work or are affiliated with volunteer associations.

Secondly, a number of studies will be reviewed that have categorized volunteer participation into various activity or organization types (eg. Health, Religion, etc.). The intent of this sub-section will be to show which proportion of the total participation falls into the recreation area as compared to the other major activity categories.

Amount of Volunteer Participation

In both Canada and the United States a few studies have looked at the amount or extent of volunteer participation. It should be noted, however, that the research results are often difficult to interpret in a meaningful manner since many of the studies have defined voluntarism differently and have operationalized these definitions into their survey instruments accordingly. Because of this, the results are often different and can only be looked at in terms of the relative breadth of each study's definition of voluntarism.

One type of definition used by many studies focuses on those people who are members of voluntary associations. Under this rather broad definition, studies have indicated anywhere from 40 to 60 percent of the adult population of the United States as being volunteers "depending on how the question is asked and whether or not one includes union and religious groups" (Smith and Baldwin 1974:278). These authors further note that this figure rises to 60% (plus or minus 5%) when the questions are worded in a precise manner (including checklists of voluntary associations) and when religious groups and unions are included.

In terms of cross-cultural research in the area of voluntary association membership, Curtis (1971) found that both American and Canadian affiliation rates were high as compared to other countries (ie., Great Britain, Germany, Italy and Mexico). He indicated that approximately 50% of the U.S. and Canadian populations had memberships in non-union voluntary associations "compared with about 33% of respondents in Great Britain and Germany, 25% in Italy and 15% in Mexico" (Curtis, 1971:875). When unions were included, this percentage rose to 64% for Canada and 57% for the U.S. He thus concluded that "while certainly not all (or most) Americans and Canadians are affiliated, there is tentative evidence that these two countries are 'nations of joiners' by comparison with others" (Curtis, 1971:874-875).

It should be noted that holding a membership in a voluntary association does not necessarily suggest that a person is active in the organization or that he or she does "voluntary work" per se. When the definition of voluntarism is narrowed to include those who are "active" in a voluntary association, or those who actually do "voluntary work" for an agency, different figures usually emerge.

A national survey of the adult U.S. population undertaken by Verba and Nie (1972) is a case in point. Verba and Nie (1972) reported that whereas 62% had at least one membership in voluntary associations, only 40% said that they were active in one or more voluntary associations (Smith and Baldwin, 1974).

Further, Manser and Cass (1976:43) cite a study by ACTION (1975) which found that only "one out of every four Americans over the age of thirteen does some form of volunteer work - or approximately thirty-seven (37) million people."

In addition, one of the only truly extensive national studies done on Canadian voluntarism (Statistics Canada, 1981) found only 15.2% of working age Canadians participating in volunteer work in the reference year February, 1979 to February, 1980. The study found only a slightly higher average in Alberta, with 19.3% participating in volunteer work. It is suggested that this low figure is a product of the narrow definition of volunteers and "volunteer work" in this study (Statistics Canada, 1981:68). The study seemed to be interested in measuring altruistic service work done in agencies or voluntary organizations. However it is possible that this left out much of the voluntary sector such as expressive group participants and these who were active in voluntary groups but did not consider their involvement as being "voluntary work".

On the other hand, studies that have broadened the definition of voluntarism have identified increased rates of participation. For example, Carter (1975) included charitable giving as well as volunteer involvement in her definition of an active volunteer. The results of her national Canadian survey indicated that 50.4% had done some volunteer work or charitable giving at some time in a twelve (12) month period.

A Gallup survey done in 1981 also used a broadened definition of volunteer activity which included "the traditional kinds of volunteer activities, such as working as a 'volunteer' for an organization as well as informal and often individual kinds of volunteer activity, such as helping an elderly neighbor" (Allen, 1982). Thus, individual voluntary acts were included in this definition as well as voluntarism normally associated with voluntary associations. This study found that "fifty-two (52%) percent of American adults and an almost equal proportion of teenagers (53%) [had] volunteered in the year between March 1980 and March 1981" (Allen 1982:22).

Types of Volunteer Participation

A number of Canadian and American studies have broken down volunteer participation into various activity types. This section will provide a brief review of the findings in order to discern what proportion of the population tends to participate in voluntary activities associated with the Recreation and Leisure sector.

Participation in Voluntary Sectors. A few studies have looked at the rates of participation in various functional sectors of volunteer action (volunteer work). In these studies, no attempt has been made to distinguish whether volunteer action is associated with government, private non-profit agencies, or voluntary associations. The intent of the section which follows is to show the relative importance of the recreation and leisure sectors of volunteer action in comparison to the other voluntary sectors in society.

A nation-wide U.S. study (ACTION, 1975) found that volunteers participated in the following types of volunteer action:

Volunteer Sector	% of Volunteers
Religious Organizations	50%
Health	15%
Education	15%
Civic and Community	14%
Citizenship Action	12%
Recreational	11%
Social Welfare	7%
Political	3%
Justice	1%

As can be seen, 11% of the volunteers participated in activities in the recreation sector, which ranked sixth behind Civic and Community and Citizenship Action.

A 1981 Gallup survey of volunteer action in the United States showed the following breakdown of people volunteering in some form of organization:

Volunteer Secton	% of Volunteers
Religion	21%
Health	14%
Education	13%
Recreation	8%
Citizenship	7%
Community Action	7%
Political	7%
General Fund Raising	7%
Work Related	6%
Social/Welfare	5%
Arts and Culture	4%
Justice	1%

When compared to the 1975 ACTION study, this study indicates an increase in rank for Recreation sector voluntarism from sixth to fourth, surpassing the Citizenship and Community action sectors. This has occurred even though the overall percentage of recreation participation is lower in this study when compared to the ACTION study. One might reasonably argue, however, that if the percentage of participation in Arts and Culture had been included under the Recreation sector, the overall percentage of participation in the Recreation sector would indeed have surpassed its counterparts in the ACTION study.

In terms of Canadian studies, Statistics Canada (1981) reported that working age Canadians undertake volunteer work for the following types of organizations:

Volunteer Sector	% of Volunteers
Social/Welfare	31.5%
Religious	25.5%
Leisure Activity	24.1%
Education	16.3%
Health	7.9%
Political	4.4%
Civic/Community	3.2%
Other	9.1%

Of some significance was the fact that leisure activity organizations captured almost one quarter of the volunteers and ranked third in terms of the proportion of volunteers who participated.

It would appear from this brief review that voluntary participation in the leisure and recreation sector is reasonably high although it generally falls behind other sectors such as religion, health and education in American studies and behind the Social/Welfare and Religious sector in Statistics Canada (1981) study. However, it is significant in the latter study that the Leisure Activity sector attracted almost 25% of those Canadians doing volunteer work.

Participation in Voluntary Associations. A few studies have also looked at rates of affiliation (membership) in voluntary associations. This section will indicate the relative standing of affiliation in recreation/sports associations in comparison with other types of voluntary associations.

In terms of affiliation in different types of voluntary associations, two studies show some similar results. Smith and Baldwin (1974:278) reported the following findings from Verba and Nie's (1972) study on affiliation in various voluntary associations:

> ...membership is most frequent in school service groups (17 percent), trade unions (17 percent), fraternal groups (15 percent), and sports clubs (12 percent), and least frequent in nationality-based groups (2 percent), school fraternities and sororities (3 percent), cultural groups (4 percent), and farm organizations (4 percent).

Simiarly, Frizzell and Zureik (1974:271) cite a Canadian study conducted in 1965 by the Social Research Group in Montreal which showed volunteer affiliation with various types of volunteer associations as follows:

Religious	36%
Social	21%
Union	21%
Sports	14%
Business	10%
Professional	8%
Political	6%
Other	12%

It is evident in these studies that affiliation in sport organizations is reasonably high, ranking fourth in each study.

Role Concepts and Benefits of Voluntarism

Theoretical Background

In general, the literature suggests that participation in voluntary associations is both beneficial to the individual as well as to the community at large (Amis and Stern, 1974; Babchuk and Booth, 1973; Babchuk and Edwards, 1965; Goldhammer, 1964; McKay, 1979; Tomeh, 1973).

It has been found that voluntary associations can serve as catalysts which actually integrate these two facets together, such that both parties (and society as a whole) can benefit. Because it is often difficult to separate the needs of the individual and the needs of a community (and society), the relationship between the two has been conceptualized through the Integration Hypothesis (Babchuk and Edwards, 1965:149).

Basically, the Integration Hypothesis has two defining units. The first of these is a social-psychological perspective, which notes that for the individual, "voluntary association may be viewed as providing affectual support, a setting in which to engage in expressive activities and as vehicles to implement special interests" (Babchuk and Booth, 1965:149). In addition, voluntary associations can also be used by the individual as a means of stimulating new friendships (Litwak, 1973).

The second unit in this theory is a more traditional focus on the sociological significance of the voluntary association within society. Here, the perspective that it taken examines "the contribution of voluntary groups to the total society, their function in integrating the society (whether directly or through their members), and the role they play in various societal processes such as decision-making, opinion formation and socialization" (Babchuk and Warriner, 1965:135). Smith (1966:487) notes that voluntary associations can play a positive role for its members in so far as they can provide:

> A common feeling of unity and identity among people who otherwise may differ not only in physical location (living in various parts of the same city, country, state, or nation) but who may differ also in a wide variety of attitudes, values, beliefs, subcultures and commitments to other organizations.

The logic behind the Integration Hypothesis is that it incorporates the function (be it instrumental or expressive) of an organization on a continuum, which at one end covers organizations which focus on service to society and at the other end has organizations that concentrate their efforts on satisfying individuals needs (Babchuk and Edwards, 1965). This also implies that a voluntary organization can adequately benefit both the community as well as the individual who participates in it, while admittedly realizing that some associations will emphasize one characteristic over the other.

The Integration Hypothesis can also be used in illustrating the more specific roles that voluntary associations have within a given community or with respect to society as a whole. This also incorporates the varying attitudes that people can have about specific voluntary associations or about voluntarism in general.

If one begins by taking a historical perspective, it can be seen that voluntary associations have been favorably viewed as playing an important and privotal role in the shaping of society. For example, voluntary associations such as the YMCA, YWCA, Boy and Girl Scouts and the 4-H Clubs have been credited with providing activities and guidance for the youth in society (Sessons, Meyer and Brightbill, 1975). Carlson et al. (1979:165) noted that in a truly integrative manner, these organizations strive to stimulate and satisfy the individuals through the teaching of new skills and interests (including those that fit within leisure time) as well as the promotion of good health and spiritual growth. For society, these organizations have guided youth in aspects of proper societal modes of conduct as well as a desire to accept civic responsibility.

There has been equal recognition of the importance of voluntary associations for adult behavior as well. For example, Kelly (1982) noted that in the 1920's and 1930's, small towns in the United States relied on churches and local community organizations to provide citizens with socially accepted leisure activities such as community dances and events.

Similarly, Babchuk and Booth (1969) and Tomeh (1973) have noted that national organizations such as the Rotary, Kiwanis and Knights of Columbus provide positive services and activities to the community, while at the same time give the participating members some form of personal gratification.

Benefits to the Individual

This positive viewpoint regarding the general benefits that voluntary associations provide for the community is for the most part, also reflected in the more specific roles that voluntary organizations play within the community and greater society. Research on attitudes toward volunteers and various voluntary associations has been supportive of this view. For example, McKay (1979) found that people were willing to contribute their time and energy to social service work for a reward of fulfillment of self-interest rather than economic gain.

In addition, several authors have noted that voluntary associations within the community provide a means whereby the individual can attain personal satisfaction, "a feeling of control, optimism, confidence in society, a sense of predictability, and feeling of happiness and adjustment" (Tomeh, 1973:103; Beal, 1956; Rose, 1959; Phillips, 1969; 1973). Phillips (1973) in fact discovered that the more involvement one had in the community, the happier one felt. This in part resulted from the participant's feeling that he was needed by the community, and that he had enriched the community through personal efforts. This is further supported by Smith and Freeman (1972) who suggested that:

> Individuals who belonged to groups reported having more friends, held more optimistic attitudes, expressed greater satisfaction with their lives, and had more confidence in society than individuals not belonging to groups or belonging to fewer groups (Smith and Freeman, 1972:173).

Although the correlation between personal happiness and voluntarism is important, one must be careful in assuming that such participation will automatically produce well-adjusted individuals. This point is made by McKay (1979:11-12) who noted that:

> One could argue that participation in voluntary associations does little to promote positive mental health and happiness because people who are well-adjusted and content are more likely to be attracted to organizations in the first place.

Finally, a Canadian study on voluntarism conducted in Edmonton by the Applied Research Centre (1981), suggested that positive volunteer experiences resulted in increased contributions toward the welfare of the community. It was found that the majority of individuals experienced positive changes in knowledge (79.3%), self-confidence (72.2%) and attitudes (66.3%) through volunteering. As a result, because personal needs were satisfied, individuals also concluded that they were in a better position to help others and promote the community. The report also noted that those who volunteered received emotional and verbal support and encouragement from significant others in their community. In particular, 88.5% of active volunteers received support for their work from their spouse; others who were influential were children (76.7%), parents (65.9%), close friends (61%) and co-workers (48.6%). It is also interesting to note that practically none of these people discouraged the volunteer from participation.

Benefits of Voluntarism to Neighborhoods

Participation in voluntary associations has also been associated with making the community a better place in which to reside. Social participation in the urban community has been shown to have an effect on the amount of personal prejudice that individuals have toward various ethnic groups (Curtis et al., 1973). Although the findings were not completely conclusive, it was found that less prejudice existed as social participation increased. This was thought to be caused by the increased exposure to a wider range of norms and values, which subsequently led people to develop a greater tolerance toward ethnic groups.

Freeman et al. (1957) found that attitudes toward the local community were somewhat interrelated with participation in voluntary associations. First, it was found that those who had greater stability in their employment and place of residence were more likely to participate in voluntary associations. This participation in turn was seen as contributing to positive feelings about the community. In particular, positive attitudes toward community development, capable community leadership and the willingness of people to work in the community were indicators of satisfaction within the community. However, there was also some pessimism directed toward the ideas that people have about the community, such as ways to improve its appearance. It can be noted though, that both positive and negative attitudes emerged as a result of greater exposure to different views through participation in voluntary associations within the community.

Benefits of Voluntarism to Society

In a general sense, the role of voluntary associations for society, as for the community, is a integrative one. As Tomeh (1973:90) notes, voluntary associations are able to:

> Support the normative order, reinforce important values, help to distribute power at the grass roots level, and help members to control an important part of their environment ... [For the individual member, opportunities can exist for] self expression and exchange of ideas and experiences.

Booth (1975) notes that in addition, voluntary associations can be beneficial to society as a means of regulating frustration and social problems. For example, ethnic voluntary groups have been seen as mechanisms which reaffirm human dignity and provide solidarity. At the same time, they can provide a socially acceptable "outlet for hostilities stemming from frustration rooted in discrimination" (Booth, 1975:207).

Amis and Stern (1974), McKay (1979), and the National Council on Voluntary Action (1977) note that voluntary associations are beneficial to society in many ways. First, they provide a means by which the individual can educate himself in areas of interest. Second, they aid in the socialization of individuals in the proper norms and values of society, as well as play a major role in cultural preservation. Third, they can serve as supportive measures to establish institutions and further, they can be innovative in encouraging social change in society. This is particularly noted in the Canadian context, where voluntary associations were seen as enabling Canadians to express "certain viewpoints and concerns which would otherwise be ignored or not heard" (National Council on Voluntary Action, 1977:29).

Provision of Services and Economic Benefits

Voluntary associations are also useful to the community and to society in that they supplement existing services. This is particularly true within the recreation sphere. As Goodale and Witt (1980:111) note with regard to recreation services:

> We are faced with the task of doing more, better, and often different than what has been done in the past and this must be done with fewer of the resources, especially financial, than we have been relying upon. This is especially the case for government sponsored or public recreation services which have grown so prolifically over the past few decades.

Another consideration for the promotion of voluntarism in the community is suggested by Murphy (1980:203) who notes that the need for such services exists simply because "no one agency, relying on its own resources, can possibly meet all the leisure needs of a community." For example, Graham and Klan (1979) found that recreational classes in music, gymnastics, and specialized crafts were offered by volunteers free of charge to people within a community in addition to the structured community programs. Similar views have also been put forward by Gold (1980) and McKay (1979).

The provision of indirect services by voluntary associations incorporates another important role in the community and society in terms of economic benefits. Voluntary associations can aid a community by offering quality services for little or no remuneration (Carter, 1975; Chapin, 1977; Hawrylyshyn, 1978; National Council on Voluntary Action, 1977; Trends, 1976). However, Carter (1975) noted that, until recently, little effort was made to determine the relative worth of this contribution. She suggested further that "those who question the fact that non-market activity (such as volunteer work) contributes substantially to the economy should ask what would happen if all volunteer services should be withdrawn" (Carter, 1975:91).

Indeed, recent studies have shown that volunteer work has considerable economic impact when calculated into the Gross National Product. Hawrylyshyn (1978) noted that in Canada, the dollar value of volunteer work for 1971 was approximately $830 per individual volunteer. For all registered volunteers then, it was calculated that "the total value of volunteer services in Canada (was approximately) $1,045 million. This was about 1.1% of Canada's $93,307 million GNP in that year" (Hawrylyshyn, 1978:41).

More recently, American census data (1980) estimated that dollar contributions of volunteer participation (at rates corresponding to the median incomes) was estimated at $64.5 billion. Further breakdowns by service categories indicate that 19% of all volunteers were involved in recreation-related activities and projects, accounting for a dollar contributions of $11.8 billion (Voluntary Action Leadership, 1982:33).

Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Attitudes of Society Toward Voluntarism

Although it is fairly clear that the use of volunteers and the existence of volunteer associations is largely beneficial to society, there has been very little research conducted that measures the actual attitudes that people have regarding voluntarism. Rather, it is interesting that much of the literature on voluntarism has been satisfied to assume that, because of all the contributions that voluntarism can make to the community, the general public will also agree that "volunteers are important to the community." For example, Zauhar (1982), Hayes and McDaniels (1980) and the United States Department of the Interior (1978) note that volunteers are often put in charge of recreation programs that appeal to different age groups. Shriver (1975) contends that without the volunteer, recreation opportunities for the mentally and physically disabled would be extremely limited. Ench (1975) emphasized that the volunteer coach not only instructs children in sport, but it also involved in developing the emotional and attitudinal behaviors that the children will require in facing all challenges in society. In general, volunteers "supplement paid staff and often permit expansion of services that would otherwise not be possible" (United States Department of the Interior, 1978:1).

The problem with utilizing articles such as these is that no measurement has been done to determine whether the ideas put forth are representative of how the general public feels about voluntarism. This is not to imply that the ideas suggested in such articles are unfounded; rather, it suggests that investigative research should be undertaken to confirm these assumptions.

Although most of the literature is supportive of volunteers, there have been some studies that suggest that negative attitudes do exist. Chapin (1977:9) suggests that:

> There is a general attitude within communities across Canada that equates direct service voluntarism with second-class working status. The phrase most often used to express this attitude is "just a volunteer".

The blame for this image has to be shouldered by both the private and public sectors, where a lack of promotion on the benefits accrued from volunteer workers has created an illusion that voluntarism is "a preoccupation for middle-class ladies...(or) a hobby for the idle rich" (Chapin, 1977:10).

Another problem that has affected the image that volunteer agencies project occurs with actual participation profiles. Within voluntary agencies, Frizzel and Zureik (1974:259) found that there was a distinct class bias revolving around membership that brings "into doubt the pluralist conception that membership and leadership in a variety of voluntary groups are open and accessible to all.... This means that those who would benefit most from membership are often not members." They suggest further that this bias (particularly in the ethnic, religious and regional factions in Canadian social life) results in voluntary associations having limited effects in facilitating normative influence or social change in society.

Attitudes of Volunteers Toward Voluntarism

In general, analytical research on attitudes expressed by volunteers regarding their volunteer participation has been limited. However, Carter (1975) found that volunteers saw themselves volunteering for altruistic reasons; in other words, they felt that they were playing an important role in the community. In addition, studies by Carter (1975), Booth (1975) and Babchuk and Edwards (1965) have determined that volunteers see their participation as a means of learning new things or satisfying self interests.

There have also been negative views on voluntarism put forth by the volunteers themselves. In a three-way analyses of present volunteers, past volunteers and non-volunteers, Carter (1975) found that the lack of proper organization or training of volunteers was a source of dissatisfaction. She noted further that those who were no longer volunteers indicated to a much higher degree than present volunteers or non-volunteers that there was too much control by professionals or by high status volunteers. On a personal level, both volunteers and past volunteers felt that there was not enough recognition given for their efforts.

Although Carter (1975) and Allen (1982) found that present and past volunteers had these negative feelings toward volunteer participation, it was found in these studies that they were not a major factor that caused people to stop volunteering.

Often, the discontinuance of volunteering centered around attitudes concerning the personal sacrifices that individuals had to make. Carter (1975) noted that job, school and family responsibilities, and lack of time accounted for 30.4% of people having to stop volunteering. In the United States, Allen (1982) found that the most important factor for discontinued volunteer participation was lack of time (33%). A second major factor was private, personal and family reasons (18%). It was also found that lack of time, or being too busy was the major reason given by 46% of people who were asked, but refused to do volunteer work.

It has also been suggested that drop-out rates in volunteer groups can result from a "burn-out affect", this being "a state of fatigue or frustration brought out by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward" (Kennedy and Zauhar, 1982:48). Although this effect has not been quantitatively measured, Kennedy and Zauhar suggest a number of possible reasons for "burn-out" in a recreation volunteer, which include:

> Excessive responsibility beyond the individual's capabilities and/or abilities...insufficient time allocation to do one's job adequately and completely...dwindling energies due to chronological age, marital status, health, family size or disabilities...realization that personal life responsibilities are aggravated by volunteer work desires...(as well as problems within the organizational structure itself) (Kennedy and Zauhar, 1982:49).

Volunteer Motivation

The subject of motivation in voluntarism deals with the questions of why people volunteer and what rewards or satisfactions they obtain from participating in these activities. Such information has high potential for use in such areas as volunteer recruitment and retention.

Motivational Theories

A number of motivational theories have been put forward to explain why volunteers participate. For example, Wilson's (1976) popular book on the management of volunteer programs has tried to apply a number of theories that have been utilized in the management of work-type organizations. These include: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, McClelland and Atkinson's Achievement-Power-Affiliation Theory and Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

Other authorities have also looked at these work-type motivational theories for possible reasons for volunteers participation (Briggs, 1981; Henderson, 1980; 1981; Knowles, 1972; Naylor, 1967). A review of these articles however, suggest that these theories do not completely explain the particular types of motivations that volunteers have.

For example, Brigg's (1981) study utilized Herzberg's motivational theories and compared the findings of a Psychology Today study on employee attitudes to her own data on attitudes of volunteers serving in schools (as teachers or clerical aides). Both used similar instruments based on the Herzberg Motivation - Hygiene Theory. Her findings suggested that although there were some similarities between the two groups there were also important differences. In this regard she notes:

> Because the data suggest that there are important differences in what motivates volunteers and what motivates paid workers, and differences in what volunteers and paid workers find satisfying and consider to be most important, the volunteer program administrator should exercise caution in drawing too close a parallel between industry and voluntarism (Briggs, 1981:6).

One of the more viable motivational theories that have been applied to voluntarism research is the Social Exchange Theory. This theory suggests that behavior is intentionally directed toward goals that are rewarding as opposed to those that are not (Edwards and Booth, 1973). Further, it contends that people will invest their energy into obtaining positive goals at a particular cost to themselves as long as the eventual rewards are at least commensurate with the costs (Edwards and Booth, 1983; Phillips, 1982; Schafer, 1980).

In terms of this theory, one would expect that a volunteer who makes an investment of time and effort must be directing it towards some form of positive goal which will be rewarding and will compensate him/her for this investment. If this occurs, one would expect continued participation by the volunteer. However, if the reward does not compensate the volunteer for the cost, then the volunteer will discontinue participation.

Phillips (1982) suggests that the altruism aspect of voluntarism (eg. helping others, serving the goals of the organization, etc.) can be thought of as the costs of the social exchange. What one receives in return for the altruistic acts are the egoistic or self-interest rewards of voluntarism (eg. self actualization, recognition, status, greater knowledge, feelings of being needed, etc.). He cites Schafer (1980) who has pointed out that "to sustain a volunteer efforts over time the rewards to the volunteer must exceed or at least balance the costs" (Phillips, 1982:118).

He further notes that volunteer programs can be evaluated in terms of whether these altruistic costs are met or superceded by egoistic or self interest rewards. He therefore suggests that the drive to continue volunteering may be influenced "by the degree to which the expectations of the volunteer are met" (Phillips, 1982:119). He also contends that people will constantly evaluate these costs and benefits throughout the various phases of their volunteer effort. Thus, a person's initial motivation for joining a voluntary program or organization may in fact shift once the volunteer has participated for a while and has evaluated the costs and rewards of participation.

Another major theoretical explanation of volunteer motivation relates voluntarism to both instrumental or extrinsic (work-like) and expressive or instrinsic (play-like) motives (Henderson, 1981). Most current leisure literature suggests that recreation experiences are often associated with intrinsic motivation and rewards (Driverand Tocher, 1970; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Neulinger, 1974; 1981). Deci (1975) notes that intrinsically motivated behavior is directed toward providing inner satisfaction to an individual while performing an activity for its own sake. The reward or satisfaction for performing the activity is the internal state of feeling competent and self-determining.

Extrinsically motivated behavior, on the other hand, is often considered to be work-like in nature; that is, there is an external pay-off or reward of some kind which motivates people to perform the activity. Good examples of extrinsic rewards are found in the work environment and include such tangible things as money, fringe benefits, pay increases, and other incentives. However, equally important extrinsic rewards are more intangible in nature and include such rewards as approval from others, recognition, prestige, social status, etc.

Jacoby (1965) and Edwards and Babchuk (1973) contend that people may be motivated to join voluntary organizations in order to obtain intrinsic or extrinsic rewards or a combination of both. Further, they suggest that different rewards are often associated with either instrumental or expressive types of associations:

> The rewards for engaging in instrumental activities are mainly extrinsic in nature. They are not personal or immediate, they come about when the goal of the collectivity is achieved. Participation in expressive activities, on the other hand, brings rewards that are inherent in the activity itself and are also immediate and personal in character (Edwards and Booth, 1973:217).

Jacoby (1965) also suggests that individuals may be attracted to the different types of rewards offered by these two types of organizations because they have instrumental or expressive orientations to life. He contends that people who join instrumental groups have lifestyle orientations that reflect a concern "with long range goals at the expense of immediate satisfaction and of being concerned with other people only to the extent that they represent means to distinctly personal ends" (Jacoby, 1965:174).

On the other hand, people who are attracted to expressive voluntary associations have lifestyle orientations that suggest that they are interested in more immediate intrinsic rewards, as reflected in their "greater need or desire for close, personal ties with others (and their ability) to establish and maintain such relationships" (Jacoby, 1965:174-75).

The foregoing discussion seems to suggest that instrumentally oriented people join instrumental organizations for extrinsic rewards and expressively oriented people join expressive organizations for intrinsic rewards. Babchuk and Edwards (1965) and Edwards and Booth (1973) note, however, that a mixture of the above two types of orientations are inevitable since both types of organizations provide certain opportunities for the simultaneous expression of both instrumental and expressive behavior. As Edwards and Booth (1973:217) note:

> In the end, though, both types of rewards are derived from both types of participation. If extrinsic rewards are attached to instrumental activities, it is necessary that certain intrinsic rewards be obtained from such pursuits in order to ensure the continued participation of the individuals involved. Similarly, some extrinsic rewards are derived from expressive activities in that, most basically these pursuits ensure stable personalities for the society.

Perhaps this combination of rewards is most apparent in the instrumental-expressive type of voluntary association.

Empirical Studies on Motivation and Voluntarism

Many studies seem to indicate that volunteer motivation comprises a combination of altruistic and self-interest motives (ACTION, 1975; Allen, 1982; Anderson, 1960; Blumberg and Arsenian, 1960; Carter, 1975; Phillips, 1982; Pratt and Gustavson (n.d.); Wiehe and Isenhour, 1977). Aves (1969) would also add sociability as another motivation category and this also has some support in the literature (Applied Research Centre, 1981; Goldhammer, 1964; Kelly, 1978; Palisi and Ibrahim, 1979).

These three concepts are defined by Aves (1969:42) as follows:

1. Altruism: Wanting to do something for others;

2. Self Interest: Seeking personal benefit such as experience, interest, knowledge, or occupation; and

3. Sociability: Wanting to meet people, to make friends.

It should be noted that any one or more of these types of motivations can be at work in an individual either alone or simultaneously and they can be of various strengths depending on the individual's social and psychological orientation and the type of volunteer activity he or she is undertaking (Lundberger, 1982; Mackay, 1979).

Weinberg (1975) also describes the two main motivation categories of self-interest and altruism by noting the various types of motives within each. She suggests that associated with the self-interest type are such motives as: "the chance to learn and grow, make new friends, be needed, belong to a group, be part of a team, develop new interests, receive recognition, test out career possibilities" (Weinberg, 1975:10). Motivations associated with the "altruistic" type include such things as "wanting to reach out to people in need, advance a cause, serve as an advocate to aid the cause of others" (Weinberg, 1975:10).

A nationwide survey of volunteers undertaken by the Canadian Council on Social Development and reported by Carter (1975) also supports this dual motivation theory. Respondents were asked to rate the two most important reasons for volunteering in a listing of motivational factors which were grouped into five main categories: altruistic, self-interest, sociability, rational and religious/ethical. The findings were overwhelmingly supportive of the motivational importance of altruism and self-interest in comparison to the other categories. (Scores were 87.4% for altruism, 78.4% for self-interest, 27.0% for sociability, 33.5% for rational and 14.7% for religious/ethical).

Of some interest to this report is the growing contention by many authorities that people are seeking out the self actualizing and intrinsically rewarding potential of voluntarism. Many authors (Carter, 1975; Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, 1977; Weinberg, 1975) note that at one time, altruism was thought to be the all-pervasive motivation in voluntarism. However, they note that increasingly, self interest motivations are becoming more important to volunteers. Although some self-interest motivations are extrinsically motivated (eg. recognition, power, etc.), it would appear that those self-interest motivations most often chosen by volunteers are intrinsically motivated (eg. affiliation, positive personal involvement, personal fulfillment, conquering challenges, learning new skills, etc.).

As Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1977:15) suggest, voluntarism is becoming an activity that people are pursuing for its own sake:

> Analysis of a wide range of volunteer activities reveals an interesting fact. Most volunteer activity not only represents a significant contribution of energy and skill and individual resources to the functioning of democracy, but also makes a significant contribution to the volunteer's own psychological health and self actualization. Volunteering offers many experiences necessary to democratic personality development. It is our conclusion that individual volunteers need volunteering just as much as the community needs them.

The foregoing suggests that voluntarism can provide two significant benefits to society. It can provide an altruistic or instrumental function which may provide important services to the general public or special interest groups. Secondly, it can provide important extrinsic rewards (eg. status, career development, recognition, prestige) and intrinsic rewards (eg. personal growth and fulfillment, enjoyment, knowledge, skill development, camaraderie, etc.) to the individual.

Implications for Recreation

The benefits of voluntarism to both the individual and society is very apparent in the field of recreation. In this regard, many authorities suggest that one of the major motivating factors in voluntarism is that it can be recreational in nature (Kelly, 1982; Lenox, 1978; Trends, 1975; Henderson, 1980; 1981; Weinberg, 1975). As Henderson (1981:21) notes:

> Voluntarism has traditionally been considered outer directed (like work) and not inner directed (like play). Recreation and leisure activities are usually intrinsically motivated - the reward is the activity itself. This intrinsic motivation is becoming more obvious in voluntarism because people are appreciating the personal growth (self fulfillment and self actualization) opportunities of volunteering. The extrinsic rewards are still evident (ie. getting the job done or benefiting the community) but the intrinsic aspects are being realized more fully.

It would appear that in practice, recreational agencies are already taking the stance that forms of volunteer service are in fact recreational to those involved. Henderson (1981:208-209) notes that the use of volunteers can provide two types of values to a recreational agency:

> Not only can recreation and leisure programs be supplemented and enhanced by the use of volunteers, but the act of volunteering can be a programmed leisure activity for the volunteer.

Examples of this are cited in many recreation practitioner's articles. An article by Lenox (1978) notes that the use of volunteers is an important part of the programming in Milwaukee's urban recreation program and it services both the recreational needs of the volunteer and the program in which he or she is involved. The article makes a rather strong case for voluntarism to be considered recreational:

> Volunteering is one of the most popular and rewarding of all leisure time activities. Not only do the volunteers receive self-gratification in terms of service, but they have an opportunity to participate in a worthwhile recreation activity in their service to others (Lenox, 1978:37).

A number of recreational articles and publications[1] (Lenox, 1978:37) point out the many ways in which volunteers can assist in recreational programming, facility construction and maintenance, in terms of heritage and park resources and municipal recreation systems (Backpacker - no author, 1979; Environment News - no author, 1972; Fichter and Scott, 1979; Forest et al., 1981; Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, 1978; Helmwood, 1980; National Parks and Conservation Magazine - no author, 1979; Trends - no author, 1976). Many of these articles point out the positive leisure rewards that can be obtained from voluntarism in the recreation field.1

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[1] Entire periodical issues have also been allocated to the review of voluntarism in the recreation field (eg. Countryside Recreation Review, Volume 2, 1977; Parks and Recreation Volume 10, No. 12, 1975; Recreation Canada, No. 3, July 1982; Trends, Volume 16, No. 2, 1979).

Socio-Economic and Demographic Correlates of Participation

This section of the report will look at three major classes of variables. The first is the Life-Cycle Variables which encompass such related factors as: age, marital status, and family life cycle. The second major class is Socio-Economic Status which looks at the interaction of education, income and occupation status. The third set of variables are the Residential Variables which includes such factors as size of community, urban vs. rural differences, length of residence in community, and type of residence. These three major classes of variables will be presented in three sections. Each of these will be followed by a section outlining research undertaken on recreational voluntary organizations which discusses findings regarding the variable class in question.

Life-Cycle Variables

Variables included in this section have been found to be interrelated in so far as they suggest that various stages of a person's life are influenced by the interplay of age, marital status and parental and family responsibilities (family life cycle). The life cycle variables alone or grouped together have been found to show definite patterns when correlated with voluntary participation.

Age. As a single variable, age seems to show a definite relationship with voluntary participation. Most studies have suggested a curvilinear relationship, with participation lower in the younger and older age groups and highest in the middle age groups (Babchuk and Booth, 1973; Booth, 1972; Cutler, 1976; Curtis, 1971; Hausknecht, 1962; Lazerwitz, 1973; Nelson et al., 1978). As Tomeh (1973:97) reported, the pattern shows "an increase in membership as the person passes through adolescence, young adulthood, and adulthood, until fifty or sixty years of age, when membership begins to decline." He notes, however, that various studies have not been entirely consistent in terms of the specific age boundaries related to the peaking of voluntary participation in the middle years prior to participation decline.

Some researchers, however, indicate slightly different trends for the relationship of voluntary participation and age, with one peak occurring during adolescence and the other during middle age (Goldhammer, 1964; Reddy and Smith, 1973).

Canadian studies on voluntary participation show mixed trends. A cross-cultural study by Curtis (1971) on voluntary association membership indicated a curvilinear relationship similar to the one described by Tomeh (1973) with participation dominating in the middle age range of 36-50 years. He noted that this occurs in both Canada and the United States with similar findings evident in other western nations as well.

Carter's (1975) study of Canadian volunteers showed that the highest proportion of volunteers were in the 26-35 age group (25.8%) and the 36-45 age group (25.9%). The numbers of volunteers declined towards the younger and older ends of the age group continuum.

Anderson and Moore's (1974) study on direct service volunteers in Canada found that most volunteers were females and they were predominately in the 40 to 60 age group.

Studies on volunteers associated with volunteer action centres found somewhat differing results. Pratt and Gustarvson (n.d.) found the largest proportion of volunteers (42%) to be in the 21-30 age group in the study done on the Vancouver Volunteer Centre. The Applied Research Centre (1981) found high numbers of volunteers in the 22-30 age group (27.2%) and the 30-40 age group (31.5%) in those agencies associated with the Edmonton Volunteer Action Centre.

A few theories have been put forward to explain the curvilinear relationship between participation and age. Tomeh (1973:98) cites Foskett (1955) who favours the role theory as an explanation: "differences in participation are explained in terms of ones position in the social system, which necessitates a particular behaviour pattern."

Related to this, the integration theory suggests that as younger people grow older, they increasingly become more involved in society as represented by career, community and family responsibilities, reaching a peak in their middle age years. As old age approaches, however, there is a gradual detachment from some of these societal responsibilities and the social networks that surround them, which eventually culminates in retirement (Smith and Freedman, 1972; Tomeh, 1973).

Age is also related to the type of voluntary association with which people become affiliated. Children tend to belong to expressive groups while mature adults have a propensity to belong to instrumental or instrumental-expressive voluntary organizations. This latter tendency towards instrumental affiliation declines as old age approaches with the elderly more inclined to join expressive voluntary associations. (Babchuk and Gordon, 1962). Therefore as Tomeh (1973:98) notes, "there appears to be a cycle of associational type participation which parallels the life cycle."

Sex. Research on differences between male and female participation in voluntary associations suggest a number of trends. When affiliation in voluntary associations is measured, most studies have found that men have a higher tendency to belong to voluntary associations and to have multiple memberships than do women (Babchuk and Booth, 1969; Booth, 1982; Cutler, 1976; Hausknecht, 1962; Nelson et al., 1978; Verba and Nie, 1972). However, when the activity or amount of time spent participating is measured, studies indicate that women contribute equal or more time in voluntary associations than do men (Allen, 1982; Booth, 1972; Verba and Nie, 1972). In addition, Babchuk and Booth (1973) found that men are less stable in holding membership over a period of time than women.

A recent national Gallup survey (Allen, 1981) in the U.S. showed some (albeit slight) differences between the sexes regarding volunteer participation. They found that of those indicating they were volunteers, 56% were female and 44% were male as compared to census figures of 52% and 48% respectively. The study also showed a slightly higher propensity for females to be volunteers (56%) as opposed to not being volunteers (44%), compared to males, who showed a slightly lower tendency to be volunteers (47%) than not to be volunteers (53%).

Similarly, a national study in Canada on volunteers (Carter, 1975) found that females made up 55.5% and males 44.5% of those indicating that they volunteered. It should be noted that both of the above studies defined voluntarism on a broad basis, taking into account participation in voluntary organizations as well as informal acts of voluntarism.

A study by Curtis (1971) also showed some interesting results in terms of volunteer participation by women. This study was a cross cultural study of six western nations including Canada. Of greatest significance were the higher membership rates of women in both Canada and the U.S. in comparison to the other four nations (Great Britain, Germany, Italy and Mexico). In addition, although male membership was higher than female in all six nations when unions were included, when the unions were excluded, there were no sex differences in Canada, only small sex differences in the U.S., and much greater sex differences in all the rest of the nations. The results for multiple memberships were similar, with both the U.S. and Canada showing no sex differences when unions were excluded.

Canadian studies on service volunteers show a very high proportion of women compared to men. For example, Anderson and Moore's (1974) national study of direct service volunteers found that of those who were volunteers, 79% were women and only 21% were men. However, when various types of volunteer programs were examined, it was found that, although still less frequently represented than females, males were more represented in Youth Services and Recreation Services than in other direct service programs (eg. Health, Welfare, Service for Handicapped, Community Self-Help, Service for Children, Services for Aged). As Anderson and Moore (1974:58) note: "Young males appear to be most attracted to programs in youth service and to a lesser extent recreation and mental health services."

Studies on volunteer action centres in Edmonton (Applied Research Centre, 1981) and Vancouver (Pratt and Gustavson, n.d.) showed that approximately three quarters of the referrals made by the centres were females as opposed to males. It should be noted that the above three studies looked at service volunteers which as a category represents only one type of voluntarism.

To summarize the above findings, in general when all types of voluntarism are taken into consideration, sex differences are not all that evident. Trends seem to indicate continued if not increasing participation by women in voluntarism. This is supported by Reddy and Smith (1973:80) in the following statement:

> In earlier periods of U.S. history, among the lower and working classes in our society at present, and in most other countries of the world that have been developed, males tend to participate more than females in organized voluntary action. With increasing equality for women in this country [United States], however, recent evidence indicates little difference between the sexes in the total amount of voluntary activity they engage in.

Another major trend is exhibited when the relationship between sex and the types of volunteer organizations is examined. In this regard, men are more likely to belong to instrumental groups as compared to women who tend to belong to expressive groups (Babchuk and Booth, 1973; Booth, 1972; Nelson et al., 1978).

Palisi and Ibrahim (1979:308) provide the following explanations for this trend:

> The evidence...suggests that women are more likely to belong to voluntary associations for leisure-expressive purposes. They are active in recreation groups such as card clubs, bowling leagues, garden clubs and hobby groups. They are also active in leisure activities within religious associations. Although women engage in instrumental groups which have a goal beyond leisure, taken in the strict sense of enjoyment, men dominate these groups. Men are more likely to use their leisure in a less immediately gratifying sense. They are interested in power, improving their occupational role and in providing service to the community. Leisure for enjoyment is less common to them than to women.

Babchuk and Booth's (1973) longitudinal study looked at sex differences in terms of seven different types of organizations. Two of these types which are of interest to this review are recreational groups (eg. bowling leagues, women's garden clubs, card clubs, etc.) and youth serving groups (eg. 4-H, YMCA, YWCA, Scouts). Their findings indicated a greater number of women to be members of recreational groups than men and that women also were more likely to be members of recreation groups than any other type of group. Babchuk and Booth (1973:33-34) suggest that "the high rate of affiliation for women in such groups is linked perhaps to their having a more flexible time schedule than men, particularly those not in the labor force and not too occupied by demands in the home." With regard to the youth serving groups, "men were as likely as women to be adult leaders of youth programs" (Babchuk and Booth 1973:31).

There were also some interesting findings regarding sex differences in other types of voluntary groups. There was a significant tendency for women to belong to church-related groups which are considered to be expressive in nature. On the other hand, men more often belong to fraternal service groups which have a tendency to be instrumental-expressive. In addition, men were more often members of instrumental job-related groups. However, when women belonged to the work force, they were just as predisposed as men to belong to job-related voluntary associations. Membership in civic-political groups which also tend to be instrumental, was equally proportioned between men and women.

Reddy and Smith (1983:20) also note a difference between men and women in terms of their chosen preferences for voluntary participation. They suggest that women have tended to participate in charitable, health and welfare fields while "men have been more active in political and economic forms of voluntary action." They suggest that these tendencies are learned in society as part of the socialization process and therefore do not reflect a biological or physiological predisposition. As such, these patterns are subject to change as societies, customs, and roles change.

Another trend worthy of note links leadership roles of men and women to either instrumental or expressive groups. Booth's (1972) study showed a tendency for men to be leaders in instrumental groups and women to be leaders in expressive groups. He also found that although men were more affiliated than women in instrumental-expressive groups, both were almost equally represented in leadership roles. Tomeh (1973:99) offers the following explanation for the leadership tendencies noted above:

> These distinctions could at least in part be attributable to differences in early sex role socialization as well as to differential experience and opportunities in later life.

Marital Status. There appears to be a definite relationship between marital status and participation in voluntary associations. In this regard, a number of studies have shown that married persons tend to have more memberships and be more active in voluntary associations than single people or those who are divorced, widowed or separated (Babchuk and Booth, 1983; Babchuk and Thompson, 1962: Booth, 1982; Curtis, 1971; Hausknecht, 1962).

Studies done on Canadian service volunteers suggest that the majority are married as opposed to being single, divorced, widowed or separated (Anderson and Moore, 1974; Applied Research Centre, 1981; Carter, 1975). However this pattern may simply reflect demographic trends of the general Canadian public (i.e. more of the general public are married than not) than it is indicative of higher participation rates amongst married people.

A cross-cultural study undertaken by Curtis (1971:876) suggests that "married respondents in each nation tended to be slightly more frequent joiners than their non-married counterparts (single, divorced, separated and widowed combined)."

A few studies have reported findings that do not support this relationship between marital status and participation. Slack (1981:22-23) cites Bell and Force's (1956) study which "showed no significant difference in membership between those who are married and those who are not." In addition, a recent American Gallup (1981) survey on volunteering found that 58% of single people volunteered as opposed to 53% of married people and 42% of those who were widowed, divorced or separated.

Some studies (Harry, 1970; Tomeh, 1973) indicate that joint membership by spouses in a voluntary organization has a positive influence on their voluntary participation. As Harry (1970:827) notes, "it appears that it is marriage and consequent joint-spouse participation which gives rise to high participation in the world of voluntary associations."

The relationship between marital status and participation can be at least partially explained by other related correlates such as age, family size and type and their interactions with one another. These variables have been studied under the heading of family life cycle and will be covered in the next section.

Family Life Cycle. This may be thought of as an individual's position in various stages of family role obligations such as "marriage, parenthood, retirement and marital dissolution" (Knoke and Thomson 1977:48).

Studies on the whole seem to suggest that family life cycle does have an influence on volunteer participation. Tomeh's (1973) literature review on the subject cites a few articles (Wilensky, 1961, 1964; Harry, 1970) which indicate that "the presence of young children in the family has a depressing effect upon the wife's membership or attendance in groups but not upon the husband's." As Harry (1970:827) notes, "the family, per se, is not an institution which facilitates involvement in voluntary associations, except for those associations in which participation is based upon family interests, for example, Boy Scouts."

Using data from two U.S. national surveys (1967 and 1974), Knoke and Thomson (1977) found a curvilinear trend between an individual's position in the family life cycle and the number of voluntary organization memberships held by the individuals. In this study, seven life cycle stages were examined: (1) young singles under 40, (2) young marrieds under 40, (3) young parents under 40 with pre-school children, (4) young parents under 40 with older children, (5) older parents 40 and over with children of any age, (6) older couples 40 and over with no children, (7) older singles age 40 and older.

Knoke and Thomson (1977:61) found that in general "the rate of memberships declined from young singles to young married, then increased to a peak at some intermediate life cycle before again declining at the terminal stages" (see Figure 1). Of particular interest are the following findings in the study:

1. Young singles had higher rates of membership than young marrieds;

2. The formative stages of marriage and family clearly depress organizational membership...when young marrieds and young parents of pre-schoolers are compared to the levels attained by young parents of older children; and,

3. The level of memberships declined sharply through the final two life cycle stages, when children are absent from the home and where no spouse is present (Knoke and Thomson, 1977:55-56).

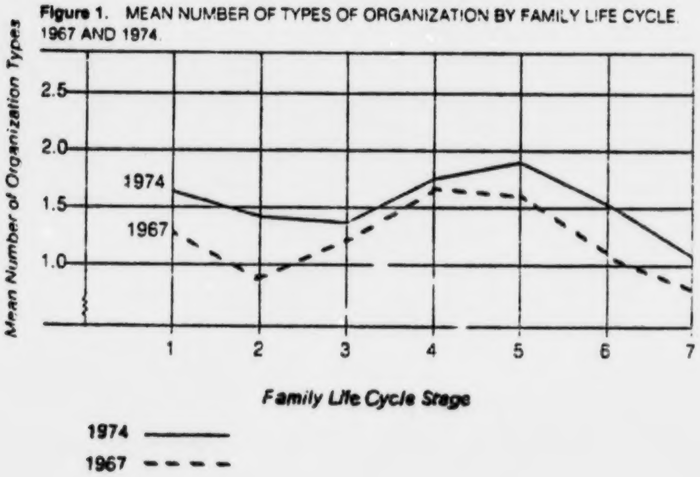

Figure 1.
Mean Number of Types of Organization
By Family Life Cycle, 1967 and 1974

Source: Knoke and Thompson, 1977:55

When the effects of sex and education were held constant, it was found that a similar curvilinear pattern emerged, with the main exception that the declining trend from young singles to young married disappeared in the 1974 results. As Knoke and Thomson (1977:58) note, this shows "that the curvilinearity of membership to life cycle is not a spurious consequence of the differential impact of sex and education across the life cycle."

The apparent trends noted above seem to have an explanation in family role theory. The lack of participation in early family life stages may suggest that young marrieds are just beginning the social integration process both in terms of entry into career and community life and that there may be some preoccupation with the raising of small children, particularly for women. However, with the entry of children into the school system, family role obligation may take the form of leadership volunteering in youth organizations (eg. YMCA, Girl Guides, etc.) or membership in parent-teacher associations. At this stage of the life cycle, men may also find that career advancement is contingent on membership in voluntary organizations. Further, women may wish to pursue voluntary activities as their children grow older and their free time increases, or they may go back into the work force, which also provides opportunities for associated instrumental organization membership (Knoke and Thomson, 1977).

Knoke and Thomson (1977:50) put forward the following explanation for the peak and declining stages of volunteer participation during the family life cycle:

> We expect the departure of the children from the home to coincide with peak involvement in extra-familial associations. Not only is more time available for participation, but the empty nest syndrome may cause many older couples to seek compensatory satisfaction in such activities. The end of the life cycle should see a progressive withdrawal of affiliation from voluntary activity, not only as aging and illness present physical obstacles, but as such role changes as retirement and deaths of spouse and age-peers begin to disintegrate social bonds. The well-known disengagement hypothesis (Cummings and Henry) predicts a sharp drop off in many types of behaviour with the transition from middle age to senescence.

Recreational Voluntary Organizations and Life-Cycle Variables

Studies focussing on recreational voluntary associations show many of the life-cycle trends in previous sections.

Age and Family Life Cycle. In terms of outdoor recreational associations and the variable age, studies indicate a similar curvilinear trend with participation highest in the middle ages but tapering off towards the youngest and oldest age groups. This occurred both in Bolduc's (1973) study of the membership of a U.S. hiking club and in Curnan et al.'s (1979) study of core volunteers in volunteer trail organizations in the northeastern United States. Bolduc found the greatest numbers in the 45-54 year age groups while Curnan et al. found most volunteers to be in their fifties.

The findings of the above two studies seem to be in marked contrast to studies done on hikers and outdoor recreationists in general which suggest that the majority of participants fall into the younger age groups (Murray, 1974; ORRRC, 1962; Sargent, 1969; Hendee, 1968). Curnan et al. (1979:121) offer the following explanation for this disparity when they suggest that "perhaps volunteer activity fits in best with the middle age life style and phase of the life cycle."

A related type of voluntary group is the environmental voluntary association which often has outdoor recreational activities as part of its mandate. In their national study of environmental volunteers in the United States, Zinger et al. (1973) found that most volunteers were over 30 years, with approximately 50% being over 40 years of age.

Volunteers in sport organizations have also been studied by Slack (1979) and Bratton (1970). Slack's (1979) study looked at volunteer sport administrators serving on the executive of the provincial sport governing associations in Alberta, while Bratton's (1970) study looked at executive members of two Canadian sport associations (ie., swimming and volleyball). Slack's (1979) study indicated a curvilinear relationship between age and participation with the greatest percentage serving within the 40-44 age group. He observes that, whereas it is likely that most participants in the various sports would come from the younger age groups, those who volunteer in support of these groups predominately come from the middle age groups.

Bratton's (1970) study indicated mixed findings, with "executives in the swimming association (being) generally older than those in the volleyball association; 54.8% of swimming executives were over 40 years of age as opposed to 9.2% of the volleyball association who were in this age bracket." He attributed this difference to the probability that the volleyball executives were recruited from the actual players while the swimming executives were likely made up of parents of the swimmers.

A benchmark longitudinal study by Babchuk and Booth (1973) of adults residing in Nebraska looked at how participation in various types of associations (eg. church related, job related, recreation groups, fraternal service organizations, and adult leadership of youth programs) was effected by various correlates of membership. Of some interest are the findings regarding recreational groups and adult leadership of youth groups as they relate to age. These are reported as follows:

1. Recreation Groups:

    a) Younger Groups - Younger age groups were reasonably highly represented in recreational groups as compared to other voluntary association categories (eg. Fraternal-Service). They were more likely to add and drop memberships over a four year period than people in older age group categories.

    b) Middle Age Groups - In comparison to younger and older age categories, the middle age group was by far the most highly represented and they were more stable in their membership over a four year period.

    c) Older Age Groups - Those over 60 years of age were slightly less represented than the people under 39 years and much less represented than those in the middle age groups. However, more older age people participated in this type of voluntary association than any of the other six types. Membership in this age group was quite stable: "those ... who were already in recreational groups remained in them but not many were inclined to join new groups" (Babchuk and Booth, 1973:30).

2. Youth Serving Groups:

> Participation seemed to be wholly centered in the 40 to 59 year age group. Of all the various categories of voluntary associations, people were least likely to participate in youth serving groups and those who did were least stable in holding their membership. Babchuk and Booth (1973:32) note that, in all probability, parents of the young were "elected to act as leaders in youth-serving organizations (Scouts, Sunday-school teaching, campfire girls, etc.). The changing pattern of affiliation of a number of respondents was a function of periodic involvement in youth socialization groups. Adults who were so affiliated saw themselves as committed for only a limited time; many both added and dropped their ties with these groups in the four-year interval studied" (Babchuk and Booth, 1973:29-30).

A study by Knoke and Thomson (1977) examined the effect of position in the family life cycle on membership in various types of voluntary organizations. This study looked at similar types of organizations as the Babchuk and Booth (1973) study. Their findings regarding recreation and youth-oriented organizations are as follows:

1. Recreation Groups

> Recreational group memberships are generally more frequent in the earlier life cycle stages, especially among young singles, but fall off in the two oldest stages. This drop off in membership by senior respondents without children is consistent across all types of organizations, but especially surprising since the recreational category includes social and hobby clubs which might be expected to have a special attraction for the elderly and the retired.

2. Youth Oriented

> As expected by the role obligations of parenthood, youth-oriented organizational memberships are most prevalent among those persons in life cycle stages with school-aged children (Knoke and Thomson, 1977:59-60).

Anderson and Moore (1974) also looked at different types of direct service volunteers, two of which included recreation services for youth. They found that people under the age of 18 were by far the most represented in recreation services as compared to the other types of programs. In addition, the 19-29 age group was most highly represented in youth services and relatively high in recreation services as compared to the others groups. Further, these younger people tended to be made up of males rather than females.

Sex. In terms of the relationship of sex to participation in recreational groups, studies on outdoor recreational and environmental associations as well as sport governing associations, all indicate that there are more males than female participants.

In particular, the nationwide Statistics Canada study (1981) on volunteer workers found that those volunteers involved in leisure activity associations were twice as likely to be males than females. In fact, of all types of volunteer organizations, males were most likely to participate in leisure activity associations than any of the other types. The authors note that these trends "could be due in part to the greater involvement of males in coaching minor athletics" (Statistics Canada, 1981:18).

Bolduc (1973), in his study of a U.S. hiking club, found that 61% of the membership were male and 34% were female. He accounted for this difference by suggesting that traditional sex roles associated with early pioneer activities have overlapped into the outdoor recreation sphere. Another explanation was that the lack of female participation was due to women's added parental responsibilities or to sex role expectations (eg. "the female is expected to stay home with the children while the male is allowed more freedom - either to pursue his own interests or to 'unwind' from his task as breadwinner" (Bolduc, 1983:8). Bolduc (1973) observed that the latter explanation was the more likely since there was a definite underrepresentation in the organization of females that were married as compared to males that were married.

Curnan et al.'s (1979) study on trail volunteers and Zinger et al.'s (1973) research on environmental volunteers suggested that the typical volunteer in each of these types of organizations is male.

Studies on sport executive volunteers also show a disproportionate number of males participating as compared to females. In his study of sport administrators in Alberta, Slack (1979) found that 66.7% of respondents were males. Bratton's (1970) study of two sport organizations found that men made up approximately three-quarters of the executive of the organizations.

A study by Holland and Gruneau (1979) on national level sport administrators, covering the years 1955, 1965, and 1975 indicated similar results. However, they did find a slight overall increase in female representation from 1955 to 1975. Theberge's (1980) study on executives of sport organizations in Ontario found that only 19.5% of the participants were female.

The above noted studies which suggest that men make up the majority of participants in specific types of recreational voluntary organizations are in direct contrast with Babchuk and Booth's (1973) longitudinal study on adults in Nebraska which showed that women constituted the majority of participants in recreational groups. This discrepancy can at least be partially attributed to the limited variety and representation of recreation groups included in this review of research, which is a product of the dearth of studies in this area. It would also seem to be evident that the outdoor recreation and sport organizations reviewed above are groups that have been traditionally male-oriented, particularly in terms of the recreation or sport activity which forms the focus of the organization. As Slack (1979:59) states: "a reason for the greater involvement may be socialization patterns of the sexes in regard to sport." Another explanation is that some of these groups are largely instrumental in nature which, as noted earlier, tends to attract more males than females. Volunteers of environmental groups and sport-governing associations undertake tasks largely of an instrumental nature, that is, the goals are long range and outside of the immediate gratification of its own members.

Marital Status. Studies undertaken on recreational and associated voluntary organizations generally support the general research literature on marital status which was previously reviewed in this section. Bolduc (1973) in his study of a Vermont hiking club, found that overall, the number of married people was slightly above the New England averages. However, when he looked at the interaction of sex and marital status, he found differing trends between the two sexes. In this regard, many more of the male participants were married as compared to the female. Bolduc (1973:8) noted that: "one possible explanation of this relationship might be that the time-consuming responsibilities of marriage and parenthood weigh more heavily on the females." In addition, he noted that there was a high proportion of single females which were "over-represented as a portion of the sample" (Bolduc, 1973:9). He attributed this to the important social nature of these clubs which might be an attraction to unmarried women. Curnan et al. (1979) found that the majority of trail volunteers were married and that 13% of the participants volunteered with their spouses. Zinger et al. (1973) also reported that the typical environmental volunteer was married rather than single.

Studies on volunteer sport administrators also found a higher preponderance of married people compared to those single, widowed or divorced (Bratton, 1970; Slack, 1979; Theberge, 1980). Slack's (1979) study, in particular, showed some interesting results. He found that a great majority of the respondents were married (84%) and that this was significantly higher than the census profile of married Albertans (62.9% of the population). Similarly only 12.1% were single compared to the census proportion of 27.4%; 3.6% were widowed or divorced compared to the census figure of 9.7% of the population.

Slack (1979) also found that when ages of participants were broken down by sex, there was less participation by women as compared to men within the 30 to 50 age range. Slack (1981:22) postulated that this "may be partially explained by the fact that these are the years in which many women are traditionally involved with raising a family and consequently little time is available for participation in voluntary organizations."

Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic status (SES) is generally considered to be a composite of the social indices of education, income and occupation but may also cover such variables as "self-rated or other-rated social class level,....home ownership, and other physical possessions" (Reddy and Smith, 1983:19).

As such, socio-economic status shows a definite relationship with volunteer participation in most studies undertaken in this topic area (Allen, 1982; Axelrod, 1983; Babchuk and Booth, 1983; Booth, 1972; Curtis, 1971; Goldhammer, 1964; Hausknecht, 1964; Hougland et al., 1979; Hyman and Wright, 1971; Nelson et al., 1978; Wilensky, 1973).

As Tomeh (1973:97) notes: "at least one conclusion seems warranted, viz., that persons of higher SES (socio-economic status) are more likely to participate in formal organizations than are their counterparts in low SES groups." Smith and Reddy (1973:19) suggest that this tendency does not preclude participation by lower SES groups but that "there are gradual changes in individual participation rates corresponding to positions all along the socio-economic status continuum."

The positive relationship between SES and volunteer participation seems to extend to Canada and other western nations as evidenced in a study by Curtis (1971). In this regard, he found direct positive relationships between voluntary association affiliation and each of the following variables: educational level, income level, occupational status and social class for all six nations in his cross cultural study (Canada, U.S., Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Mexico).

Other Canadian studies, have also shown similar relationships between higher SES and voluntary participation. In their Canadian survey on direct service volunteers, Anderson and Moore (1974) found positive trends respecting volunteer participation and education, class status, and occupation. Separate studies done on volunteers associated with volunteer centres in Vancouver and Edmonton generally showed similar results (Applied Research Centre, 1981 and Pratt and Gustavson, n.d.). The results of these two studies, although not completely conclusive, do suggest some tendency toward increased volunteer participation by those with higher education and white collar occupations.

In her nationwide study of volunteer participation in Canada, Carter (1975) obtained results that did not follow the general pattern noted in previous studies. In terms of family income, she found that a large percentage of Canadian volunteers (48.2%) had family incomes of less than $12,000. However she noted that these results may be imprecise due to the fact that approximately 31% of the volunteers did not report their income levels. Similarly, the results did not suggest a strong preponderance of highly educated persons with high occupational status as might otherwise be expected. Rather, lower educational and occupational groupings were also well represented among volunteers.

In general, it is evident that most researchers support the contention that socio-economic status is positively correlated with affiliation rate of participation and leadership positions in voluntary associations. This has led Smith and Freedman (1972:154) to speculate on a possible explanation for these trends:

> ...the evidence is so overwhelming that several investigators have been led to conclude that advantages 'cumulate' for the advantaged, that is, those with more education and income and higher occupational status are also psychologically more confident, have greater feelings of efficacy, and participate more in both informal and formal social activities including voluntary associations; on the other hand, disadvantages 'cumulate' for the disadvantaged.

Other theories have also been put forward which have attempted to explain the reasons why these class distinctions exist. Smith and Freedman (1972:156) cite Hausknecht's (1964:209-211) theory on lower class participation which suggests that the working or blue collar class are members of a distinctive subculture which has its own norms and customs. This theory is as follows:

> In this [working or blue collar class] culture, life is focussed on the family which also provides the model for all social relationships. These relationships are largely personal or primary and the worker is only minimally committed to the impersonal or secondary relationships of the society beyond the family. He neither understands nor trusts the larger community. His 'misanthropic and intolerant perception of others' combined with a fatalistic

> feeling that he is powerless to change the world, result in his avoiding the voluntary association with its impersonal social relationships. When he does join he eschews instrumental associations and tends to seek those expressive organizations which 'can be structured in terms of primary relationships, and those which have roots in the immediate locality with little or no connection with the larger society'.

This theory is not entirely supported, however. The above quote suggests that only the lower classes put such an emphasis on primary relationships with family and friends and that higher classes might be substituting participation in voluntary associations for these informal primary relationships. However, a study by Axelrod (1973) suggests that all segments of society value informal participation (eg. visiting and socializing) with such people as relatives, friends, neighbours and co-workers. Although he also found a high degree of positive correlation between SES and voluntary association participation, he notes that there is "no substantiation of the view that formal association substitutes for informal association." (Axelrod, 1973:43).

Foskett (1955) on the other hand, favours the role behaviour theory which suggests that a person in a given socio-economic class will tend to "live up" to the roles and behaviour expected of that class. In this regard, voluntary association membership may be seen to be advantageous to the person aspiring to higher SES since it if often recognized as being a prerequisite to advancement in one's career. In addition, the expectation of certain types of behaviour within the social class is often enough to exert pressure to act in accordance with the norms of that class. As Foskett (1955:437) explains:

> As applied here, those in the upper educational and income levels will likely hold positions where participation is among the set of expectancies. In every community there are a number of people who can readily testify to the pressures upon them to assume responsibility and give their active support to community projects. For the most part these people have roles characteristic of the upper socio-economic levels.

In addition, Foskett suggests that people of higher SES also tend to have the necessary skills and abilities (as reflected in their education and careers) to participate effectively in voluntary associations.

Another major finding in SES research relates different socio-economic classes to different types of voluntary associations. As Tomeh (173:97) notes: "persons having higher SES are likely to join groups that differ categorically from those joined by persons of lower SES."

For example, studies by Booth, Babchuk and Knox (1968) and Palisi and Jacobsen (1977) have both found middle class and higher status people more often belonging to instrumental and instrumental-expressive organizations than those people of lower status. However in terms of expressive associations, the results were mixed. Booth, Babchuk and Knox (1968) found that more middle class people tended to belong to expressive associations than working and lower classes. On the other hand, Palisi and Jacobsen's (1977) study showed that lower status people more often belonged to expressive groups than the middle or higher classes. Thus, the general findings of the two studies suggest that those of middle and higher statuses are most likely to join instrumental groups but in terms of expressive groups, the research is not yet conclusive as to whether higher or lower classes predominate.

Reddy and Smith (1973) and Palisi and Ibrahim (1979) offer further insight into the tendencies of the various social classes to be attracted to certain types of voluntary associations. Smith and Reddy (1973) suggest that the highest of the class statuses are often members of exclusive clubs and may hold only nominal or honorary membership in other voluntary associations without playing an active role in them. It is the upper middle class and middle class groups that provide the membership and active participation in both instrumental and instrumental-expressive groups. As Palisi and Ibrahim (1979) note, these people tend to be active and competent in many spheres of society, and instrumental voluntary associations often recruit these people to manage and operate these organizations. These types of organizations often provide services to some segment of society and it is thought that people of this class are attracted to them because of the role expectations exerted on them to serve their communities in some way.

Studies also indicate that the upper middle, middle, and lower working classes belong to expressive voluntary associations. Both Palisi and Ibrahim (1979) and Reddy and Smith (1973) suggest that when lower working class people do become involved in voluntary associations, they are much more attracted to those that are expressive in type and which provide immediate recreational and social rewards. In addition, they propose that the lower working classes find these organizations less formal and require less organizational skills than instrumental associations. The upper middle and middle classes also belong to expressive voluntary organizations. As Palisi and Ibrahim (1979:314) note:

> Perhaps such groups serve as oasis of fun, sociability and psychic rewards which strengthen the middle class persons for future encounters in instrumental situations.

Recreational Voluntary Organizations and SES

In terms of recreational and related groups, findings similar to those outlined in the previous section are evident.

In their study of direct service volunteers in Canada, Anderson and Moore (1974) looked at the educational levels of volunteers in various kinds of service programs, including recreation and youth services. In general, volunteers serving in both these areas were proportionately much more educated than the average for the Canadian labor force. Relative to the average volunteer in the study, those volunteering in the youth services had slightly higher educational levels while those who were volunteers in recreational services had somewhat lower educational levels.

A number of studies on outdoor recreation clubs and conservation groups in the United States have indicated a high positive correlation between membership and socio-economic status, including education, income and occupational classification. (See Bolduc, 1973: Curnan et al., 1979; Devall, 1970; Harry et al., 1969; Hendee, 1971; Hendee et al., 1968; Zinger et al., 1973). Harry et al. (1969) and Hendee (1971) suggest that the variable of education can be considered a reliable predictor of participation in outdoor recreational and environmental activities both in an informal leisure sense as well as in organized voluntary associations. However, Hendee (1971) notes that there is still a hierarchy of educational levels between the various types of participants:

> In general, education seems to most sharply distinguish membership: those belonging to instrumental conservation groups tend to be of a slightly higher education level than members of expressive outdoor clubs. Members of such organizations are more highly educated than outdoor recreationists in general, who are also well educated (Hendee, 1971:125).

With regard to volunteers in sport organizations, the results of a number of studies indicate a consistently positive relationship between voluntary participation and education, income, and occupation (See Beamish, 1978: Bratton, 1970; Hollands and Gruneau, 1979; National Sport and Recreation Centre, 1983; Slack, 1979; Theberge, 1980).

Residential Variables

This section will examine the relationship between voluntary participation and the following variables: size of community, rural versus urban differences, and length of residence in community. In addition, a short sub-section will outline some studies which relate these variables to voluntarism in recreational organizations.

Size of Community. Studies have indicated contradictory findings when the relationship between voluntary participation and size of community has been examined (See Palisi and Ibrahim, 1979 and Tomeh, 1973).

For example, Hausknecht (1962, as cited by Hougland et al., 1979:603) has reported that "except for those attracted to civic organizations, persons in smaller communities were more likely to be joiners than people in larger communities." On the other hand, Curtis (1971) found somewhat higher membership rates in mid-size communities of 20,000 to 50,000 population in the United States and in communities of 10,000 to 30,000 in Canada. Key (1968, as cited by Hougland et al., 1979) also found a similar pattern. Palisi and Ibrahim (1979:303) offer the following explanation for this latter trend:

> This finding could result partially from the fact that medium-sized cities often are suburbs and may have high rates of formal participation. In addition medium-sized cities may be large enough to sustain formal voluntary groups - having enough people of different types, and sufficient numbers of each type to make it possible to organize formally when special interests arise. They may also be small enough that people can know others personally and have feelings of community identification - thus leading to involvement in groups.

In direct contrast to the above findings, a study by Hougland et al. (1979) found no support for the finding that people in mid-sized communities had higher rates of voluntary participation. Instead, their results indicated that "respondents in cities and metropolitan areas were most likely to report experience with voluntary organizations..." (Hougland et al., 1979:607). In final contrast, Babchuk and Booth (1973) found no relationship between voluntary association affiliation and community size.

Urban vs. Rural Differences. In general, results have been conflicting concerning the relationship between voluntary participation and residence in rural or urban areas (cf. Babchuk and Thompson, 1969; Hausknecht, 1962; and Wright and Hyman, 1958). However, Tomeh (1973:102) attributes the lack of conclusive support for differences in rates of voluntary participation between urban and rural settings to the growing similarities between the two types of communities:

> ...the noticeable resemblance between urban and rural communities in terms of affluence, education and mobility is a sign which points toward great similarity in their rates of organizational membership than the reported associational differences.

A recent U.S. Gallup survey (Allen, 1982), although not resolving the above noted discrepancies, does show one interesting finding: people living in rural areas spend more hours in volunteer activity than urban residents.

In terms of Canadian studies, Carter (1975) found that volunteer respondents came predominately from urban areas (79%) as opposed to those from rural settings (21%). These percentages were not compared with corresponding Canadian census figures so it is not known whether they are proportionately over or under-represented.

Length of Residence in Community. Studies that have examined the interaction between the length of residence in a community and volunteer participation have shown mixed results. As Tomeh (1973:101) notes:

> Some studies indicate a positive correlation between length of residence and affiliation in organizations (cf. Freeman et al., 1957; Tomeh, 1969; Zimmer, 1955), whereas Wright and Hyman (1958), using data from the Denver survey, show no systematic relationship between length of residence at the same address and incidence of affiliation with voluntary associations, and in Scott's study (1957) length of residence had a significant effect upon participation only in conjunction with other variables like age and marital status.

There does seem to be some evidence, however, that suggests that those who first move to a community (migrants) do not tend to participate in voluntary activities as much as those residents who have lived in the community for a while (Windham, 1963). In addition, the rate at which migrants eventually interact in the community and participate in voluntary associations depends on their familiarity with the norms of the city lifestyle. Tomeh (1973:101) cites Zimmer's (1955) study in this regard:

> Inter-urban or inter-city migrants usually have only minor social adjustments to make and hence attain the participation rates of non-migrants of similar demographic characteristics in a short period of time. Those who come from rural areas take longer than urban migrants to become as socially active in voluntary associations.

Litwak (1973) also found support for voluntary associations' providing affiliation and integration of individuals into the community. It was found that individuals would join more local voluntary associations as they became settled in the community. However, the participation rates were seen to vary with the rate of conformity that existed between an individual's values and those of his neighbor(s). Tomeh (1973:102) noted that Zimmer's (1955) and Litwak's (1961) studies are illustrative of the theory "that at different times during a period of residence, voluntary associations may act as a mechanism for integration in the community."

Type of Residence. With regard to type of residence (or dwelling unit) and its potential relationship to voluntary participation, no conclusive evidence was found which suggested a definite relationship in this area. For example, Wright and Hyman (1958) found no relationship between type of residence and volunteer participation. On the other hand, Babchuk and Booth (1973) noted that other studies had found that volunteers tended to be home owners. Anderson and Moore (1974:53) in their study of Canadian direct service volunteers also found that "Canadian volunteers were more likely to live in houses (74%) than in apartment type dwellings (22%) or other forms of accommodations."

Recreational Voluntary Organizations and Residential Variables

Studies on volunteers in recreational organizations generally show tendencies for participants to have residences in urban areas. Also there is some support for the theory that sport executive volunteers are relatively settled in their respective communities.

Studies done on outdoor recreation and environmental associations indicate that most volunteers have residences in urban areas (Bolduc, 1973: Curnan *et al*., 1979; Hendee *et al*., 1968). Curnan *et al*. (1979:120) observed the following about the trail volunteers in their study: "while most of the volunteers work in large cities, they live in suburbs and would prefer to live and work in yet smaller communities." Bolduc (1973) also found a majority of urban residents in the membership of a U.S. hiking club, with 35% living in the city and 34% living in suburbs; however, he also found a relatively large group of the members (30%) that lived in non-metropolitan areas (eg. village, farm, etc.). Boduc's (1973) figures closely conform to national figures on residential distribution in the U.S.

Similarly, with regard to volunteers in sport organizations, both Beamish (1975) and Slack (1979) have found a propensity for these volunteers to have residences in urtan areas and in particular the large cities (Slack, 1981). In addition, Slack (1979) found that volunteer sport adiministrators showed a relatively high average length of time in his/her present community (17.4 years) "and nearly 88% had lived there for four or more years" (Slack, 1981:31).

Chapter 2

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter of the study presents a brief description of the methods and procedures utilized in obtaining and analyzing data relevant to attitudinal questions regarding volunteers and voluntarism.

The Data

Questions on Voluntarism

The data were obtained from the 1981 "Public Opinion Survey on Recreation" conducted by Alberta Recreation and Parks. The survey was distributed by mail in February of 1981 to 4700 Albertans selected at random. A total of 2425 individuals responded, representing 51.6% of the original sample.

Respondents were asked whether they and/or the members of their families were volunteers (section 4, questions 5 and 6)2. In order to learn more about the attitudes of Albertans toward volunteers and voluntarism, five attitudinal statements were asked in the survey (section 3, question 7). These statements were:

a) Volunteers are given meaningful tasks.
b) Volunteers have an important role in the community.
c) The personal sacrifices of volunteering make it difficult for the individual to participate as a volunteer.
d) Volunteers have a chance to learn new things.
e) The number of people who are willing to volunteer is decreasing.

All respondents (regardless of their volunteer status) were required to disagree or agree with each of the statements. An additional category of "no opinion" was provided for those individuals who neither agreed nor disagreed with a statement.

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2 The exact wording and format of the questions analyzed in this report can be found in Appendix A.

Socio - Demographic Characteristics

The attitudinal questions on voluntarism and the measurements of whether or not the respondents were volunteers were examined with respect to the following socio-demographic categories. These categories were as follows:

Life Cycle Variables: Age; Sex; Marital Status; Family Type

Socio-Economic Status: Education; Income; Occupation

Residential Variables: Urban vs Rural Setting; Geographical (Provincial) Regions; Type of Dwelling; Type of Ownership; Length of Residence in Dwelling; Length of Residence in Province.

The age of respondents was distributed among five categories: those individuals under 25 years of age, age 25-34, age 35-44, age 45 to 64, and age 65 and over. Marital status was defined as being single, married (or common-law) and other (separated, divorced, widowed, etc.). Family type referred to the following groupings: a couple with one or more children, a couple with no children, single parents (with one or more children), one or more single persons sharing a dwelling, and an "other" category.

The education of respondents was separated into four categories: less than high school; completed high school; post secondary (or technical) education; and university education. The income of respondents was divided into five categories: those who made less than $10,000 per year; $10,000 to $20,000; $20,000 to $30,000; $30,000 to $40,000; and those who earned more than $40,000 per year.

The occupations of respondents consisted of ten categories. Students, retired persons and homemakers defined one category, while the remaining nine were professionals, managerial positions, technicians, supervisors or foremen, clerical workers, tradesmen, farmers, unskilled laborers and "other".

The geographic locations within the province of Alberta corresponded to the eight designated regional separations defined by the Alberta Recreation and Parks Department. These were: Lethbridge and area (Medicine Hat, Three Hills); Calgary; Red Deer and area (Stettler, Leduc); St. Paul, Wainwright and Vegreville; Edson and Barrhead; Edmonton; High Prairie and Grande Prairie; and the Peace River, Fort McMurray Region. The respondent was asked whether his dwelling was in an urban or rural setting, as well as the length of time he or she resided within the province. For the latter category, respondents were given the choice of: up to one year; one to two years; three to five years; six to ten years or, over ten years of residence.

Finally, questions concerning the type of dwelling were addressed in the questionnaire. The dwelling type referred to the following: apartment, single family house, attached house (condominium, duplex), mobile home or "other". Respondents were asked as to whether they rented or owned their home, and were asked to list the length of time they resided in their present dwelling (using the same time lines noted in the previous paragraph).

Methods of Data Analyses

Data pertaining to the attitudinal statements on voluntarism, as well as the socio-demographic characteristics were descriptively analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program FREQUENCIES. In addition, the SPSS program CROSSTABS, using the chi-square statistics, was employed to determine any relationships that existed between attitudes toward voluntarism and actual volunteer participation.

Chi-square techniques were also used to examine the significance of comparisons between volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to the above noted socio-demographic characteristics. Finally, chi-square techniques were also employed to determine if relationships existed between the socio-demographic characteristics of the entire sample (volunteers and non-volunteers together) with respect to each of the five attitudinal statements on voluntarism.

For all chi-square contrasts, null hypotheses were set at p less than .05 for statistical significance.[3] For those contrasts that were statistically significant, post hoc[4] multiple comparison tests (Marascuilo and McSweeney, 1977) were used to identify the causes for rejection of the null hypotheses and thus determine where the differences were.[5] Although it is possible to explain most differences that occur, the post hoc tests may not be able to uncover all significant differences. In these latter instances, it is possible that reported significant differences could have occurred as a result of the large number of chi-square tests. In other words, through repeated runs, signficance could have been obtained by chance.

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[3] By definition, the null hypothesis is a statement which asserts that differences between samples are close enough to zero that the differences are attributable to random selection of the samples from the sample population" (Galfo and Miller, 1965:359). In the current study, a null hypothesis would assume that there was no difference between the observed and the expected frequencies in each category for a specified variable, "but when differences between observed frequencies and expected frequencies are great - as measured by chi-square - in comparison to the expected frequency, a conclusion is drawn that the differences probably are not a result of sampling error; the null hypothesis is rejected" (Galfo and Miller, 1965:208).

[4] A post hoc test is a follow-up test to the chi-square procedure. While the chi-square statistic can be used to determine if there are differences between the categories of a specified variable, a post hoc analysis can identify which of the categories are significantly different from one another.

[5] Marascuilo and McSweeney (1977:141) do not name this procedure, but infer that it is a multiple-comparison procedure analogous to Scheffe's and Tukey's multiple-comparison procedures for parametric tests. A detailed breakdown of this post hoc procedure can be found in Appendix B.

Although all individuals who returned the questionnaire were included in the study, there were instances where individuals did not answer a particular question correctly or even respond at all to some questions. In those instances, pairwise deletion[6] was used to eliminate inaccurate responses. Although the sample of returned questionnaires (N=2425) was used as the basis for analysis, missing responses for any variable comparisons were eliminated. Thus, the actual numbers of individuals who responded may vary from table to table.

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[6] In pairwise deletions, a case is omitted from the statistical calculations for the variables in question. This procedure does not eliminate an individual's response from all comparisons.

Chapter 3

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

In this chapter, the results and interpretations of the data from the Public Opinion Survey on Recreation (1981) will be presented in three sections. The first section presents the cross-comparisons of the socio-demographic variables between those respondents who were considered volunteers and those who were not. The second section will focus on the differences between volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to five attitudes on voluntarism. The third section will examine each of the five attitudinal statements in more depth by comparing the degree to which the entire sample (comprising both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents) agreed or disagreed with the items with respect to the socio-demographic characteristics.

Volunteers and Non-Volunteers: Socio-Demographic Comparisons

Determining the Volunteer

In order to determine the ratios of volunteers and non-volunteers within the sample, respondents were asked the question, "Did you work as a volunteer in the past twelve months" (Section 4, question 5). Respondents were classified as volunteers if they answered "yes" to this question. Those who answered "no" were considered to be non-volunteers. In addition, the survey asked whether "any members of the respondent's household worked as volunteers in the past 12 months" (Section 4, question 5). Respondent's were asked to answer "yes" or "no" to this question. If there were volunteers within the household, the actual number of volunteers was to be specified.

The ratio of volunteers to non-volunteers for both the respondent and members of the family can be seen in Figure 2. It was found that 967 respondents were volunteers (ie. had worked as a volunteer in the last twelve months) representing 40.6% of the sample, compared to 1412 respondents who were non-volunteers (59.4% of the sample). It was also found that 979 families did some volunteering (or 42.6% of the sample) compared to 1317 families (57.4% of the sample) who did not volunteer. The difference in numbers of volunteers between the individual and family statistics is accounted for by 22 non-volunteers who noted that at least one person in their household was a volunteer in some capacity, even if they themselves were not. The number of household volunteers ranged from 1 to 9 family members. However, the predominant number of volunteers within a single household was either one (35.5%) or two (49.0%).

There are two limitations to this method of determining who the volunteer is. First, although volunteers can be identified, the actual amount of volunteer work over the twelve month period was not measured. In other words, it is possible that one respondent may have done volunteer work only once during the twelve month period, while another may have been actively involved every week in volunteer work. This difference may be particularly influential with respect to the expressed attitudes toward voluntarism. Secondly, the wording of the question did not direct respondents to consider themselves volunteers if they were members of voluntary associations. Neither did it consider how many of these associations they belonged to or if they were active or non-active members.

The literature on volunteer participation varies, depending on how the concept of "volunteer" is defined and operationalized. The two studies most comparable in terms of operationalizing the volunteer concept are the U.S. 1981 Gallup survey (Allen, 1982) and the nationwide Statistics Canada (1981) survey on volunteer workers. The former study found that between 52 and 53 percent of respondents had either worked as a volunteer in an organization or had participated in some individual voluntary activity or act of altruism in the last 12 months. A post hoc calculation which removed this latter type of informal volunteer participation revealed that 40.5% did volunteer work associated with an organization.

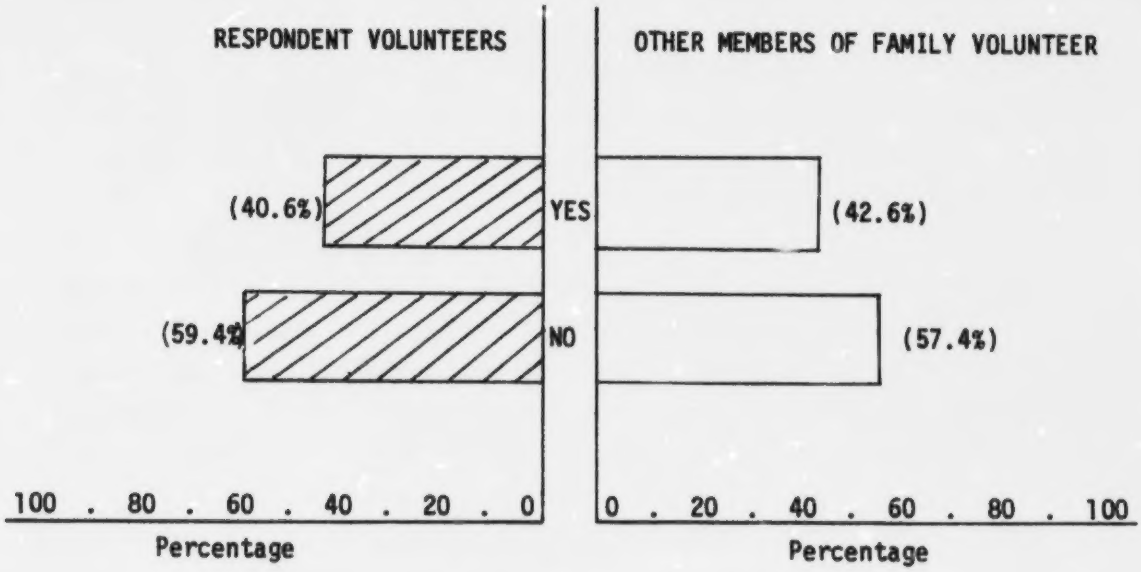

FIGURE 2
Identification of Volunteers
Within Sample Frame

However the nationwide Statistics Canada (1981) study found only 15.2% of working age Canadians doing "any unpaid volunteer work" over a twelve month period. The Statistics Canada figures for Alberta were slightly higher then the national figure with 19.3% participating in volunteer work. These figures are significantly less than the findings of this study. The only explanation that can be put forward to explain this discrepancy is that the Statistics Canada study may have directed their respondents to consider volunteer work as including only the direct service type of voluntarism.

When compared to the other studies which defined volunteers as those belonging to volunteer associations (see Smith and Baldwin, 1974) the figure of 40.6% fell within the lower end of the range of results (40-60%) which looked at the percentage of adult population affiliated in volunteer associations.

In any event, if the 40.6% figure is representative of the percentage of Albertans who are volunteers, this would indicate a relatively large volunteer work force in the province and a significant contribution to Alberta's communities and services.

The data presented in the tables which follow deal with a comparison of the socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers and non-volunteers as well as a comparison of the attitudes toward voluntarism for these two groups.

The variable "family volunteers" was not cross-tabulated with socio-demographic characteristics and attitudes toward voluntarism for two reasons. First, it can be seen from Figure 2 that the findings uncovered with the "family volunteers" question were almost identical to the pattern of voluntarism found for the individual respondent. Further, it was found that those socio-demographic characteristics and attitudes that were significantly different with respect to the individual respondent volunteering were again found when compared with the "family volunteers" statistics. Thus, to report the family voluntarism findings would be an unnecessary repetition of the results. Second, the responses to the attitudes toward voluntarism and the socio-demographic characteristics describe the survey respondent, and should not (and cannot) represent the thoughts and physical makeup of other members of the household. In other words, to use the individual respondent's attitudes toward voluntarism, as well as his personal socio-demographic makeup would not necessarily be an accurate representation of other household members who volunteer. For these reasons, the tables which follow will be limited to the analyses association with whether or not an associated respondent is a volunteer.

Life-Cycle Variables

The chi-square comparisons between volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to the socio-demographic variables of age, sex, marital status and family type can be seen in Table 1. It can be seen from this table that with the exception of sex, the chi-square contrasts were significant. The non-significant finding suggests that in this particular study sex is not a determining factor for voluntarism. While it was found in the study that more men (41.6%) than women (38.8%) were volunteers, the difference with regard to sex was not great enough to be significant. The lack of difference between two sexes may be somewhat appropriate since the literature is not decisive on sex-related participation rates. Some previous research has found that men were more likely to belong to more voluntary associations than women (Booth, 1972; Nelson, Baker and Nelson, 1978; Cutler, 1976; Hausknecht, 1962; Babchuk and Booth, 1969, Verba and Nie, 1972), but other studies noted that women participated as much or more than men in terms of actual time spent volunteering (Allen, 1982; Booth, 1972, Verba and Nie, 1972; Carter, 1975). It is possible that clearer differences between the sexes might have been uncovered if the definitions underlying participation as a volunteer were outlined in more detail.7

The age of an individual appeared to be somewhat of a factor though. It was found that as individuals grew older, there was a greater tendency to become a volunteer. The Marascuilo and McSweeney (1977) post hoc procedure revealed that among the active volunteer group, people were more likely to volunteer if they were between the ages of 25 to 34, 35 to 44 or 45 to 64. Conversely, people were less likely to volunteer if they were under 24 years of age, or were 65 years of age or more.

Upon comparing volunteer patterns with non-volunteer patterns with respect to age, it can be seen that in almost all of the age levels, respondents are still less likely to be volunteers. However, it can be seen that there is almost an even percentage difference between volunteers and non-volunteers in the 35-44 age category. Out of all respondents in the sample aged 35-44, 50.5% volunteered, whereas for the other age groups, much less than half of the sample were volunteers.

The literature on voluntarism with respect to age has also noted that one would more likely be a volunteer between the ages of 35 to 44 than at any other time in the life cycle (Curtis, 1971, Goldhammer, 1964; Reddy and Smith, 1973). The data in this study also revealed that there was a greater likelihood of volunteers being in the middle age groups of 25 to 64 than older (over 64) or younger (under 24). This finding is also confirmed by previous research on age trends (Babchuk and Booth, 1983; Booth, 1973; Cutler, 1976, Curtis, 1981, Hausknecht, 1962; Lazerwitz, 1973; Nelson et al. 1978). The trends that occur in this and previous

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7 See the last chapter of this report "Implications and Recommendations" for a more detailed discussion of this aspect of the survey.

TABLE 1

Socio-Demographic Comoarison of Volunteers vs Non-Volunteers: Age, Sex, Marital Status and Family Type

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Numbers of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Age					
up to 24	30.6	69.4	(376)		
25 to 34	40.6	59.4	(785)	39.48	0.00
35 to 44	50.5	49.5	(432)	4DF	
45 to 64	42.6	57.4	(547)		
65 and over	32.5	67.5	(203)		
Sex					
Male	41.6	58.4	(1545)	1.60	NS
Female	38.8	61.2	(810)	1DF	
Marital Status					
Single	29.6	70.4	(419)	44.66	0.00
Married	45.1	54.9	(1662)	2DF	
Other	31.3	68.7	(275)		
Family Type					
Couple with children	50.7	49.3	(1156)		
Couple - no children	32.9	67.1	(580)	93.87	0.00
Single Parent	33.6	66.4	(119)	4DF	
One or more Single Persons	28.0	72.0	(435)		
Other	36.9	63.1	(65)		

research may reflect on a person's greater likelihood of having attained a notable position in the social system through work and family responsibilities during the middle years of one's life. What this suggests is that younger people are not yet established career-wise and in the social sphere to be actively participating as a volunteer, while older people who have previously reached a pinnacle in their career, decrease participation with voluntary associations as their career winds down (Tomeh, 1973).

An examination of marital status through the post hoc tests showed that among volunteer respondents, those who were married (45.1%) were more likely to volunteer than those who were single (29.6%) or "other" (separated, divorced, widowed) marital status (31.3%). It can be also seen that there is a greater tendency for non-volunteers to be single (70.4%) or in "other" categories (68.7%), than to be married (54.9%). While some research has questioned the relationship between voluntarism patterns and marital status (Allen, 1982; Bell and Force, 1956), most literature has found that married people are more likely to be volunteers than single people and widowed, divorced and separated individuals (Babchuk and Booth, 1982; Babchuk and Thompson, 1962; Booth, 1982; Curtis, 1981; Hausknecht, 1962). The reasons for this trend may be related to the position that one sees himself as having within the social sphere. Marriage for the most part represents a form of stability in one's life. This, coupled with one's age as well as work and family responsibilities all serve to define one's social status in the community. This in turn suggests that one may feel a social obligation to volunteer for worthwhile organizations within that community.

With regard to the family type category, those respondents who were volunteers were significantly more likely to be couples with children (50.7%), rather than couples with no children (32.9%), single parents (33.6%) or single people in a shared dwelling (28.0%). Non-volunteers, on the other hand, were more likely to be from the latter three categories, than couples with children.

The presence of children in the household and its relationship to volunteer participation is examined in Table 2. When the household age compositions were compared statistically, it was found that the volunteer was more likely to come from a household that had children aged 6-17 in residence. This category was statistically more prominent (57%) than all of the other categories. In addition, 44.9% of the household volunteers had children under the age of 6 years old, while the volunteers themselves (as parents) were quite highly represented in the 30-49 age composition (47.4%). It was also found that households with members aged 18-29 and members over the age of 64 were more likely to be non-volunteers compared to other household profiles.

It can be seen from this table as well as in earlier reported results that volunteers are likely to be married, middle aged individuals belonging to families in which school age children are present. Similar findings were confirmed in studies by Tomeh (1973) and Knoke and Thompson (1979). In particular, the presence of children over the age of 6 in the house can be related to involvement by both the children and parents in youth organizations such as the YMCA, Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, as well as parent associations such as the PTA.

TABLE 2
Effect of Presence of Household Members
on Volunteer Participation

Age of Household Members	Household Respondent Volunteer % (40.6%)	Household Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4%)	N (By Rows)
Under 6	44.9	55.1	(508)
Age 6-17	57.0	43.0	(767)
Age 18-29	37.4	62.6	(1195)
Age 30-49	47.4	52.6	(1163)
Age 50-64	41.7	58.3	(530)
Over 64	35.4	64.6	(254)

$\chi^2 = 86.62$; 5 D.F.; $p = 0.00$

Socio-Economic Status

Table 3 presents a comparison of the education and income levels for volunteers and non-volunteers. It can be seen from this table that both characteristics are statistically significant. A comparison of the proportionate percentage among the levels of education revealed that volunteer respondents were more likely to be university educated (45.8%) as opposed to having a high school education (39.2%) or less than high school education (31.8%). An examination of personal income levels revealed that those respondents earning less than $10,000 per year were unlikely to be volunteers. In fact, 73.1% of the respondents in this income bracket were non-volunteers. It was also found that the highest proportion among the volunteer respondents earned between $20,000 and $30,000 per year.

Table 4 presents a comparison of the different occupations of volunteers and non-volunteers. The post hoc tests revealed that among volunteers, there was a significant difference between farmers who volunteered (60.4%) compared to those who had clerical (37.5%) or "other" (13.6%) occupations. No other statistically significant relationships existed in this table, although people within professions that required post secondary education (professionals - 44.2%, managerial - 44.5%, technicians - 45.7%) were seen as being somewhat more likely to be volunteers. Among non-volunteers, it is interesting to see that a fairly high proportion of non-volunteers were blue-collar workers (Supervisor/Foreman, Clerical, Tradesman and Unskilled Labour). However these occupations are not statistically associated with non-voluntarism as per the post hoc tests even though such a trend seems to exist.

The findings from the present study for education, income and occupation are comparable to results from previous studies. The findings with respect to education appear to be consistent with previous research (Allen, 1982; Anderson and Moore, 1974; Curtis, 1971). This in turn should also suggest that income levels would also be higher, and occupation would be high in terms of social status. It can be seen from the data that the income for the majority of the volunteer respondents is $20,000 or more. These results follow the trends outlined in previous studies coupled with the findings that those who made less than $20,000 per annum were less likely to volunteer (Allen, 1982; Axelrod, 1973; Babchuk and Booth, 1983; Booth, 1982; Curtis, 1971; Goldhammer, 1964; Hausknecht, 1964; Hougland et al., 1979; Hyman and Wright, 1971; Nelson et al., 1978; Wilensky, 1973).

The lower rates of voluntarism seen among the under $20,000 per annum income brackets may also be accounted for by the ages of the respondents. Those individuals under the age of 24 who were previously identified as non-volunteers would likely be in low paying jobs, or would just be starting to become established in their occupation. Those over the age of 64 might also be part of these lower income brackets, as many people in this age bracket are retired and live on fixed incomes. On the other hand, those respondents who earned more than $20,000 per year are more likely to be middle aged individuals who are established in their jobs or careers. It is quite possible that people from the upper income levels would likely be between the ages of 25 and 64; and it was within this age range that a person would be more likely to volunteer. For the variable occupation, it can be seen from Table 4 that the percentage of Professionals (44.2%), Managers (44.8%), and Technicians (45.7%) who volunteer is quite high compared to the other occupations (with the exception of Farmers - 60.4%). The higher percentages found in these categories among volunteers, compared with the "blue collar" occupations, is somewhat consistent with previous studies (Anderson and Moore, 1974; Curtis, 1971; Reddy and Smith, 1973). However, these trends have not been statistically confirmed by the post hoc test.

Residential Variables

Table 5 presents the chi-square comparisons of volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to the provincial region they are from and whether they are urban or rural based. First, it was found that statistically, those individuals from rural areas were significantly more likely to be volunteers (56.7%) than those from urban areas (39.0%).

TABLE 3

Socio-Demographic Comparisons of Volunteers vs Non-Volunteers: Education, Income

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Education					
Less than high school	31.8	68.2	(280)		
High school	39.2	60.8	(745)	16.95	0.0007
Technical (Post Secondary)	41.2	58.8	(687)	3DF	
University	45.8	54.2	(644)		
Income					
Less than $10,000	26.9	73.1	(201)		
10,000 to 20,000	36.7	63.3	(472)		
20,000 to 30,000	47.9	52.1	(566)	32.12	0.0001
30,000 to 40,000	41.2	58.8	(459)	4DF	
over 40,000	42.9	57.1	(501)		

TABLE 4
Socio-Demographic Comparison of Volunteers vs Non-Volunteers: Occupation

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Occupation					
Professional	44.2	55.8	(425)		
Managerial	44.8	55.2	(223)		
Technician	45.7	54.3	(92)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	34.8	65.2	(92)	33.21	0.0001
Clerical	37.5	62.5	(371)	9DF	
Tradesman	36.9	63.1	(339)		
Farmer	60.4	39.6	(106)		
Unskilled	39.4	60.6	(99)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	42.8	57.2	(453)		
Other	13.6	86.4	(22)		

This trend among volunteers was also supported with respect to the geographic area within the province. In general, it can be seen from this table that volunteers are more likely to come from the smaller communities as opposed to the larger cities. Volunteers were more likely to be from small communities such as Grande Prairie and High Prairie (59.7%), Edson and area (48.4%) or Lethbridge (48.0%) than from the major cities of Calgary (35.1%) and Edmonton (33.9%). Although volunteers from the St. Paul (56.9%) area were not statistically different from the city of Calgary, there was a significant difference between this area and volunteers from the city of Edmonton. This difference might be accounted for by the geographic location of the latter two areas within the province, as St. Paul and Area is situated closer to Edmonton than to Calgary.

With respect to these residential characteristics, the data presented in Table 5 is partially supported by other studies. First, although the sample appeared to be over represented by urban respondents[8], it was found that volunteers tended to be from rural areas as opposed to urban. While Allen (1982) supports this present finding, other studies such as Anderson and Moore (1974) and Carter (1975) have, instead, found that urban residents are more likely to volunteer.

The support for rural voluntarism is further supported with respect to provincial regions. It was found that volunteers were more likely to be situated in areas such as St. Paul, Grande Prairie and High Prairie, and small cities such as Lethbridge and Red Deer to a far greater extent than the major cities of Edmonton and Calgary. While this pattern is consistent with the urban/rural results, and supported by at least one previous study (Curtis, 1971), other research on the subject suggests instead that people who live in city suburbs will be more likely to participate in voluntary associations (Tomeh, 1973; Hougland *et al*., 1979).

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[8] This problem with sampling was noted by Anderson and Moore (1974) as a possible bias in analysis and interpretation of results.

TABLE 5

Socio-Demographic Comparison of Volunteers vs. Non-Volunteers: Urban vs. Rural and Provincial Regions

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Urban vs. Rural					
Urban	39.0	61.0	(2080)	27.67	0.00
Rural	56.7	43.3	(245)	1DF	
Regions					
Lethbridge and Area	48.0	52.0	(256)		
Calgary	35.1	64.9	(724)		
Red Deer and Area	46.2	53.8	(223)	63.58	0.00
St. Paul and Area	56.9	43.1	(116)	7DF	
Edson and Area	48.4	51.6	(256)		
Edmonton	33.9	66.1	(641)		
Grande Prairie and Area	59.7	40.3	(72)		
Fort McMurray and Area	54.3	45.7	(46)		

Table 6 presents the statistical comparison within the socio-demographic characteristics of dwelling type, ownership, time in the dwelling and time in Alberta for volunteers and non-volunteers. With the type of dwelling, the post hoc tests revealed that volunteers were more likely to live in a single family house (44.6%) rather than in an apartment (28.2%) or an attached house (35.4%), whereas the opposite was true for those who were not volunteers. Further, it was found that volunteers were more likely to own their dwellings (44.1%) than rent (32.2%), while non-volunteers were more inclined to rent (67.7%) than own (55.9%). With respect to the length of time that volunteers and non-volunteers lived in their present dwelling, although the chi-square contrasts revealed that highly significant differences existed between the length of time, the post hoc tests failed to isolate where the differences occurred. In general, it appeared that volunteers were more likely to have resided in their present dwelling for six or more years (an average of 45.9%) than a shorter amount of time, while non-volunteers were likely to have resided in their dwelling for 1-2 years (65.4%) or less than 1 year (63.2%). For length of residence in Alberta, similar trends were found for both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. Non-volunteers were seen as residing in the province for a shorter length of time (less than 5 years), while the majority of current volunteers resided in the Province for more than six years.

With respect to type of residence, it was found that those who volunteered were more likely to live in a single family dwelling rather than an apartment or an attached house. In addition, it was found that people were more likely to own their home than to rent their dwelling. These findings are supported by the literature (Anderson and Moore, 1974; Babchuk and Booth, 1973); however, the literature also notes that limited research has been conducted with this variable.

TABLE 6

Socio-Demographic Comparison of Volunteers vs Non-volunteers:
Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time In Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Dwelling Type					
Apartment	28.2	71.8	(316)		
House	44.6	55.4	(1595)	35.78	0.000
Attached House	35.4	64.6	(339)	4DF	
Mobile Home	35.9	64.1	(103)		
Other	33.3	66.7	(15)		
Ownership					
Rent	32.2	67.7	(702)	27.69	0.000
Own	44.1	55.9	(1635)	1DF	
Time In Dwelling					
Up to 1 Year	36.8	63.2	(505)		
1-2 Years	34.6	65.4	(514)		
3-5 Years	42.1	57.9	(504)	20.24	0.0004
6-10 Years	46.3	53.8	(320)	4DF	
Over 10 Years	45.4	54.6	(522)		
Time in Alberta					
Up to 1 Year	33.9	66.1	(56)		
1-2 Years	35.0	65.0	(123)		
3-5 Years	32.4	67.6	(225)	10.74	0.03
6-10 Years	42.2	57.8	(218)	40F	
Over 10 Years	42.1	57.9	(1731)		

Ownership and type of residence are also linked with the length of time one remains in a neighborhood. It appears that the stability of residence within a single community does have an effect on volunteer participation. The more one becomes settled in a community, the more likely one will volunteer (Litwak, 1973; Windham, 1963). In the present study, it was seen that people were more likely to be volunteers the longer they resided in their dwelling (hence, their neighborhood) and within the province. Thus, the trends noted in the previous research also appear to be occurring here.

Summary

It can be seen from the previous tables that volunteers and non-volunteers differ with respect to socio-demographic make-up. Volunteers were seen as being between the ages of 25 to 64, with a major peak in volunteering occurring between the ages of 35-44. Volunteers were also likely to be married and have children. Non-volunteers had very different life cycle characteristics. The age of the non-volunteer was likely to be under 24 and over 65; and they tended to be single or divorced, separated or widowed. If non-volunteers were married, they were more likely to have no children. Non-volunteers who had children were likely to be single parents.

With respect to socio-economic status and residence, volunteers tended to have a university education, earned between $20,000 and $30,000 a year and were either in occupations that required post secondary education (professionals, managerial, technicians) or were farmers. Proportionately, it was found that volunteers tended to come from rural areas or small urban centers and were home owners. Non-volunteers tended to have a high school education (or less than high school), earned less than $10,000 a year, and were in blue collar occupations (Clerical, Tradesmen, Foremen or Unskilled labour). Non-volunteers tended to be from major urban cities and were largely apartment dwellers. The results also showed that non-volunteers had a much shorter period of residence in their present dwelling and in the province than volunteers.

Attitudes Toward Voluntarism: Volunteers and Non-Volunteers

Table 7 presents the differences in the degree to which volunteers and non-volunteers agreed or disagreed with five general attitudinal statements on voluntarism. Three of the statements focussed on the positive aspects of voluntarism ("volunteers are given meaningful tasks", "volunteers are important to the community" and "one can learn new things through volunteering"), while two statements presented a pessimistic view of voluntarism ("personal secrifices make volunteering difficult" and "voluntarism is decreasing"). Both volunteers and non-volunteers were asked to respond to each of these statements by either agreeing or disagreeing with the statement. Respondents were also given the option of indicating a no-opinion response if they were unsure of their current viewpoint with respect to any of the five statements. In general, the findings indicate that significant differences between the views of volunteers and non-volunteers were evident on each of the five items.

With respect to the statement "volunteers are given meaningful tasks", it was found that there was no difference with regard to the amount of disagreement with the statement between volunteers and non-volunteers. However, volunteers were significantly more likely to agree with the statement (75.4%) then non-volunteers (60.2%), while non-volunteers were more likely to have no opinion (31.4%) about the statement than volunteers (16.9%).

With respect to the attitude that "volunteers are important to the community", similar results were again uncovered. Within both the volunteer and non-volunteer populations, respondents were considerably more likely to agree with the statement than to disagree or have no opinion. However, volunteers were significantly more likely to agree with the importance of the statement (96.8%) than non-volunteers (87.9%). Non-volunteers were more likely to have no opinion (9.2%) on the statement than those who volunteer (2.0%). In addition, it was found that among non-volunteers, a higher percentage tended to have no opinion on the subject rather than disagree with it.

TABLE 7
Comparison of Volunteers vs Non Volunteers with the Degree of Agreement with Attitudes Toward Volunteerism

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Volunteers are given Meaningful Tasks					
Disagree	7.7	8.4	(189)		
No opinion	16.9	31.4	(592)	65.82	0.000
Agree	75.4	60.2	(1541)	2DF	
	(N=942)	(N=1380)			
Volunteers Important To Community					
Disagree	1.3	2.9	(52)		
No opinion	2.0	9.2	(148)	58.82	0.000
Agree	96.8	87.9	(2154)	2DF	
	(N=956)	(N=1398)			
Personal Sacrifices Make Volunteering Difficult					
Disagree	55.6	23.3	(848)		
No opinion	12.2	27.7	(498)	259.89	0.000
Agree	32.2	49.0	(941)	2DF	
	(N=947)	(N=1380)			

TABLE 7 (con't)

	Respondent Volunteer % (40.6% of Sample)	Respondent Not Volunteer % (59.4% of Sample)	Number of Respondents	Chi-Square D.F.	P
Can Learn New Things Through Volunteering					
Disagree	1.7	2.8	(55)		
No opinion	2.9	11.4	(186)	60.26	0.000
Agree	95.4	85.7	(2094)	2DF	
	(N=954)	(N=1381)			
Voluntarism is Decreasing					
Disagree	16.1	9.3	(282)	63.90	0.000
No opinion	18.8	32.2	(624)	2DF	
Agree	65.1	58.4	(1426)		
	(N=949)	(N=1383)			

With respect to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult", volunteers were more likely to disagree with the statement (55.6%) than agree (32.2%) or have no opinion (12.2%). In contrast to volunteers, it was found that those who were not volunteers were more likely to agree with the statement (49.0%) than to disagree (23.3%) or have no opinion (27.7%). The post hoc tests revealed that there were significant differences between volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to agreement or disagreement. Volunteers were more likely to disagree with the statement than non-volunteers, while non-volunteers were more likely to either agree with the statement or not have an opinion when compared to those who were active volunteers.

The attitude that one "can learn new things through volunteering" revealed similar differences between the two groups. In terms of agreement, both volunteers (95.4%) and non-volunteers (85.7%) tended to agree more with the statement than to disagree (1.7% and 2.8% respectively) or to have no opinion (2.9% and 11.4%, respectively). However, non-volunteers were significantly more likely to have no opinion on the statement (11.4%) than to totally disagree with it (2.8%). In a comparison between volunteers and non-volunteers, it was found that volunteers were much more likely to agree with the statement than non-volunteers. Of the non-volunteers, 11.4% were unopinionated about the statement, compared to volunteers (2.9%), who were more inclined to express an opinion, whether it be positive or negative.

Finally, some interesting differences were revealed with respect to the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing". Among volunteers, post hoc tests revealed that the number of people who agreed with the statement (65.1%) was significantly higher than those who disagreed with the statement (16.1%) or had no opinion (18.8%). A similar trend is noted among non-volunteers - 58.4% agreed with the statement as compared with those who disagree (9.3%) or had no opinion (32.2%). However, non-volunteers were more inclined not to have an opinion on the subject rather than disagree with it. In a direct comparison between volunteers and non-volunteers, it was found that statistically, volunteers were more likely to disagree with the statement than non-volunteers, and that non-volunteers were more likely not to have an opinion than those who were active volunteers. Although the difference between volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to the agreement of this statement is not statistically significant, the fact that both groups express their feelings that voluntarism is decreasing indicates that it is equally necessary to determine why people are no longer volunteering as it is to find out why people do volunteer.

It can be seen from the review of the literature that voluntarism is an important but often underrated aspect of society. People realize that volunteers and voluntary associations exist, and understand the positive value of such associations to the individual, the community and society (Amis and Stern, 1974; Babchuk and Booth, 1973; Carter, 1975; Freeman et al., 1957; McKay, 1979; Tomeh, 1973). Individuals will therefore tend to largely support voluntarism whether they are volunteers or non-volunteers (Allen, 1982; Carter, 1975). In other words, people will tend to support voluntarism because a societal norm suggests that they should[9].

The five statements on voluntarism used in the present study do not refer specifically to the recreation context. Instead, the linkage that the survey makes between recreation and voluntarism is provided in the introduction to the question on attitudes, which states that "volunteers work in many areas of organized recreation". The literature shows however, that the above five attitudes of voluntarism could conceivably be expressed by people within most voluntary associations, including those that are recreation-oriented (Allen, 1982; Carlson et al., 1979; Carter, 1975; Kennedy and Zauhar, 1982; Reddy and Smith, 1973; Sessoms et al., 1975; Tomeh, 1973).

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[9] An analogy to this might be a comparison between an individual's understanding of the importance of physical activity as opposed to actual participation, as Wankel (1980:21) points out, "fitness and health are somewhat like sex and good food. Everybody is for them - they have positive feelings toward them. This does not mean, however, that these positive attitudes are necessarily translated into behavior." It must be noted however, that there have been very few studies that have measured attitudes of non-volunteers toward voluntarism.

Although problems may be present with analyzing general attitudes toward voluntarism because of societal norms, one cannot necessarily assume that there *will not* be differences between those who volunteer and those who do not. In this regard there seems to be some relationship between a volunteer's actual participation and his attitudes towards voluntarism. In other words, one could predict that because of direct experiences, those individuals who were active volunteers would be more likely to have a positive attitude toward voluntarism than non-volunteers who had no such experiences[10] (Babbie, 1979; Mouly, 1978).

Respondents generally had positive attitudes towards voluntarism. It can be seen from Figure 3 that both volunteer and non-volunteers (ie. the survey population as a whole) were primarily in agreement with the attitudes that were supportive of voluntarism: Volunteers are important to the community, one can learn new things through volunteering, and volunteers are given meaningful tasks. It was also found that for each item, the percentage of volunteers who agreed with the attitudes was greater than the proportion of non-volunteers who agreed. This gives some support to the notion that actual experience correlates positively with favourable attitudes that are supportive of voluntarism.

However, with the high amount of agreement expressed by both volunteers and non-volunteers with the attitudes "volunteers are important to the community" and "one can learn new things through volunteering", one can possibly conclude that these attitudes represent generic statements which support the continuum suggested by the Integration Hypothesis (Babchuk and Booth, 1965; Babchuk and Edwards, 1965; Babchuk and Warriner, 1965; Litwak, 1973; Smith, 1966). The former attitude demonstrates the role of the volunteer in society, while the latter affirms a social-psychological component concerning personal benefits accruing to the individual through voluntarism. These findings suggest that the public recognizes both these functions of voluntarism as being equally important, regardless of one's personal volunteer status.

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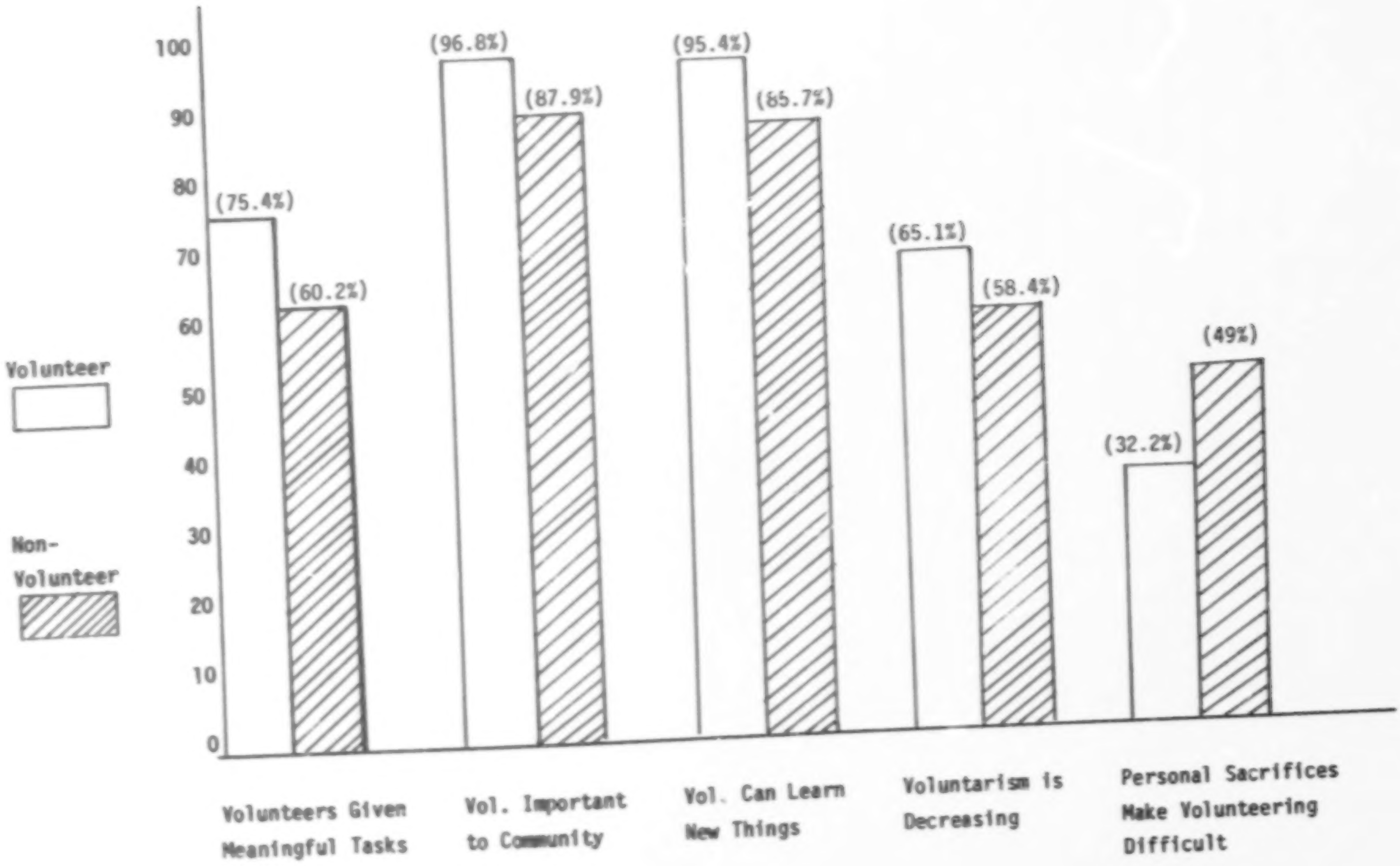
[10] Although Babbie (1979:8) supports this viewpoint, he also cautions the use of predictability based on direct experience alone. Instead, he implies that "only part of what we *know* comes to us through direct experience. Another part - a much longer *one* - comes from the agreed-upon knowledge that others give us." This again point to a bias derived from societal norms surrounding voluntarism.

FIGURE 3

Percentage of Agreement Registered by Volunteers and Non-Volunteers with Respect to the Five Statements on Voluntarism



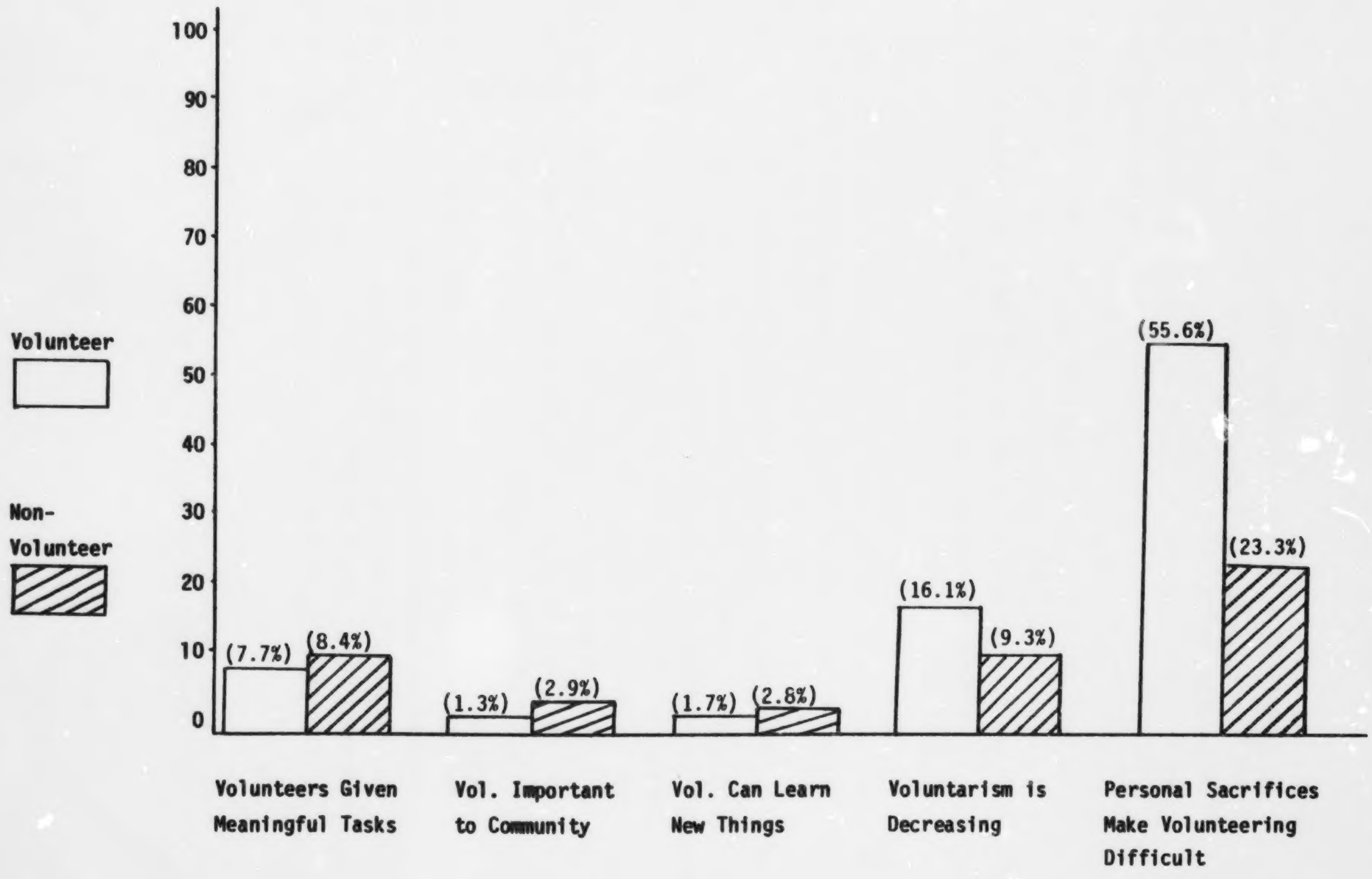
There was less support given to the attitude "volunteers are given meaningful tasks" by both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondent. However, the differences in agreement here between volunteers and non-volunteers might be accounted for by actual experiences, as those respondents who were volunteers would be more aware of the actual tasks that had to be done. The lower amount of agreement with this attitude among volunteers (in comparison with the previous two attitudes) might suggest that the tasks given to some of these volunteers are not particularly meaningful to them.

With respect to the somewhat more negative attitudes toward voluntarism, interesting contrasts between volunteers and non-volunteers were uncovered. It can be seen from Figure 4 that volunteers (55.6%) were much more inclined to disagree with the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult", than non-volunteers (23.3%). Again, this suggests that as a result of actual experience, those who actually volunteer are able to balance their voluntarism with other personal commitments. This also suggests that rather than being a chore, many who actually volunteer receive some form of personal gratification or satisfaction from participating in such an activity (Beal, 1956; Rose, 1959; Phillips, 1973; Tomeh, 1983). Even though the majority of volunteers (55.6%) disagreed with this attitude, it can also be seen from Figure 4 that one third of the volunteers (32.2%) agreed with this attitude. This corresponds with findings by Carter (1975), who suggests that there are some volunteers that have difficulty balancing volunteer activities with other commitments.

It can be seen that among non-volunteers, approximately one half agreed with the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult". It is possible that the non-volunteers include those individuals who have never volunteered as well as those who were volunteers but dropped out for various reasons (among them being dissatisfaction with the activity or overwhelming time commitments - Allen, 1982; Carter, 1975). Further, it is possible that the higher agreement with this attitude among non-volunteers may be due to personal and other commitments preventing them from volunteering or causing them

FIGURE 4

Percentage of Disagreement Registered by Volunteers and Non-Volunteers with Respect to the Five Statements on Voluntarism



to cease in their volunteering (Allen, 1982). It must be noted however, that the Public Opinion Survey on Recreation simply defined volunteers on the basis of whether the respondent worked as a volunteer in the past twelve months[11], and no information was directed toward whether or not respondents had ever volunteered in the past and had subsequently quit.

The final attitudinal variable dealing with "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing" presents some results which may reflect current societal trends. It can be seen that a high percentage of volunteers and non-volunteers agreed with this attitude. First, this suggests that there may be a problem with finding and keeping people active as volunteers. Among volunteers, this may support the position put forth by Kennedy and Zauhar (1982) that volunteers are becoming overburdened with activities and are subsequently getting "burned out". This finding can also be related with the "personal sacrifices" attitude, that suggests that lack of time and other commitments may be factors for individuals to cease volunteer participation (Allen, 1982; Carter, 1975). Another possible explanation is provided by Qureshi et al. (1979) who noted that as direct services become more prevalent in the community, the indirect services provided by volunteers will decline as a result of the former undermining the latter. This means that volunteers may feel that their efforts are no longer worthwile, and subsequently decide that perhaps their time could be put to better use toward other interests.

The high amount of agreement among non-volunteers with the attitude that "voluntarism is decreasing" suggests three things. First, it is possible that the non-volunteers may include former volunteers who have become dissatisfied with their volunteer experiences. Secondly, it is also possible that the attitude trends may reflect a difference between what people *think* is occurring as opposed to what is *actually* occurring. In other words, the trends suggested here by this attitude may reflect a lack of awareness by the general public who volunteers are and what they do in the community (Chapin, 1977). Alternatively, this may reflect actual problems with volunteer recruitment and turnover which may promote the attitude that volunteers are becoming harder to find.

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[11] This was the fifth question asked to respondents in Section 4 (socio-demographic information) of the survey.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

This section of the report will determine if there is a relationship between the degree of agreement with the five attitudinal statements on voluntarism and the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.[12]

Life Cycle Variables

Tables 8 through 12 report on the relationship of age, sex, marital status and family type with each of the five attitudes. Table 8 presents the comparison of these characteristics with the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks". With respect to the age of the respondents, all age groups tended to be in agreement that volunteers working in organized recreation are given meaningful tasks (66.5% of the survey population). Less than 10% within all age groups disagreed with the attitude. Although the chi-square contrasts were statistically significant for this item, the Marascuilo and McSweeney (1977) post hoc procedure failed to isolate the differences. With respect to sex and marital status, no significant differences were uncovered. The majority of males and females (66.6% and 66.3% respectively) and those in all marital categories agreed with the importance of this attitude. With respect to family type, it can be seen that one or more single persons who occupy a dwelling were less likely to agree with this attitude than those in all other household categories, and in fact were more likely to express no opinion on the subject (32.3%) as compared with the other categories.

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[12] The figures represented in the following tables represent the composite total of the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents.

TABLE 8

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Given Meaningful Tasks: Age, Sex, Marital Status and Family Type

	Disagreement	No Opinion	Agreement		Chi-Square	
	%	%	%	N	DF	P
	(8.1% of sample)	(25.4% of sample)	(66.5% of sample)			
Age						
Up to 24	9.5	24.1	66.3	(377)		
25 to 34	7.4	29.9	62.7	(782)	16.10	0.04
35 to 44	9.6	22.8	67.6	(426)	8DF	
45 to 64	7.6	22.2	70.2	(540)		
65 and Over	6.7	24.9	68.4	(193)		
Sex						
Male	8.6	24.7	66.6	(1529)	1.97	NS
Female	7.2	26.5	66.3	(803)	2DF	
Marital Status						
Married	8.4	24.5	67.1	(1639)	3.86	NS
Single	8.0	28.5	63.4	(424)	4DF	
Other	6.7	26.4	66.9	(269)		
Family Type						
Couple with Children	8.3	28.6	68.1	(1140)	18.36	0.02
Couple no Children	8.5	25.6	65.9	(566)	8DF	
Single Parent	10.3	17.2	72.4	(116)		
One or More Single Persons	6.4	32.3	61.2	(436)		
Other	9.1	22.7	68.2	(66)		

Table 9 presents the age, sex, marital status and family type of respondents with respect to the attitude that "volunteers are important to the community". Approximately 90% of the survey population agreed with this statement. There were no significant differences in agreement or disagreement for those in different age, sex and marital categories. For the family type statistic, the chi-square contrast was statistically significant, but further analysis could not determine where the differences occurred.

Table 10 examines the relationship between the age, sex, marital status and family type of respondents with the attitude that "personal sacrifices make participation in volunteering difficult". For the sex and housetype characteristics, no significant differences were uncovered. With regard to marital status, a statistically significant chi-square contrast was recorded between those who were married and those who were classified as "other". Married individuals were more likely to disagree with the "personal sacrifices" attitude (37.9%) than those who were in the "other" marital category (29.1%). Age differences with respect to this attitude were also uncovered. Those most likely to agree with this statement were in the younger age categories (under 35 years). With respect to an expressed disagreement with this attitude, those respondents aged 35-44 were much more inclined to disagree with its implications (46.5%) than those in all other categories, but particularly those over 65 years (27.1%). No significant differences were found between the 45-64 age group and the 35-44 age group. It was also determined that those aged 65 and over were most inclined to have no opinion (34.6%).

With respect to the attitude that "volunteering gives people a chance to learn new things" (Table 11), it was found that within age groups, those respondents aged 35-44 were somewhat more inclined to agree with this outlook (93.5%) than the respondents in other age categories. Respondents aged 65 and over were more likely to have no opinion with regard to this item. There were no significant differences recorded for sex of respondents (males vs. females), marital status or family type of respondents with respect to this attitude.

TABLE 9
Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Important to the Community: Age, Sex, Marital Status and Family Type

	Disagreement % (2.2% of Sample)	No Opinion % (6.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (91.4% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Age						
Up to 24	2.1	7.1	90.8	(380)		
25 to 34	2.2	6.7	91.1	(788)	4.36	NS
35 to 44	2.3	3.5	94.2	(431)	8DF	
45 to 64	2.0	5.8	92.2	(551)		
65 and over	2.5	10.9	87.1	(201)		
Sex						
Male	2.3	6.5	91.3	(1549)	0.11	NS
Female	2.1	6.3	91.7	(815)	2DF	
Marital Status						
Married	2.0	5.8	92.3	(1665)	8.22	NS
Single	1.9	7.5	90.6	(425)	4DF	
Other	4.0	8.0	88.0	(274)		
Family Type						
Couple with Children	1.8	4.7	93.5	(1157)		
Couple no Children	2.8	7.0	90.3	(575)	19.03	0.02
Single Parent	4.2	6.7	89.1	(119)	8DF	
One or More Single Persons	1.8	8.2	90.0	(439)		
Other	1.5	13.6	84.8	(66)		

TABLE 10

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Personal Sacrifices Make Volunteering Difficult: Age, Sex, Marital Status, and Family Type

	Disagreement % (36.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (21.5% of Sample)	Agreement % (42.2% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Age						
Up to 24	31.7	23.5	44.7	(378)		
25 to 34	34.9	18.7	46.4	(782)	55.18	0.00
35 to 44	46.5	15.2	38.3	(428)	8DF	
45 to 64	37.5	23.9	38.6	(544)		
65 and over	27.1	34.6	38.3	(188)		
Sex						
Male	35.5	20.7	43.8	(1536)	5.03	NS
Female	38.0	23.0	39.0	(797)	2DF	
Marital Status						
Married	37.9	20.3	41.8	(1647)		
Single	35.8	23.9	40.3	(422)	9.87	0.04
Other	29.1	24.2	46.8	(265)	4DF	
Family Type						
Couple with Children	39.7	19.2	41.1	(1150)		
Couple no Children	33.8	23.9	42.3	(568)	13.36	NS
Single Parent	36.5	18.3	45.2	(115)	8DF	
One or More Single Persons	34.1	22.9	43.0	(428)		
Other	28.1	28.1	43.8	(611)		

TABLE 11

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteering Gives People a Chance to Learn New Things: Age, Sex, Marital Status and Family Type

	Disagreement %	No Opinion %	Agreement %	N	Chi-Square DF	P
	(2.3% of Sample)	(8.0% of Sample)	(89.7% of Sample)			
Age						
Up to 24	1.6	8.2	90.2	(378)		
25 to 34	1.9	8.5	89.6	(788)	26.29	0.0009
35 to 44	3.0	3.5	93.5	(428)	8DF	
45 to 64	2.9	8.1	89.0	(543)		
65 and over	2.6	14.4	83.0	(194)		
Sex						
Male	2.6	8.4	89.0	(1537)	2.44	NS
Female	1.9	7.2	91.0	(807)	2DF	
Marital Status						
Married	2.1	7.7	90.2	(1637)	5.80	NS
Single	2.4	7.4	90.3	(421)	4DF	
Other	3.7	10.7	85.7	(272)		
Family Type						
Couple with Children	2.4	7.6	90.1	(1147)		
Couple no Children	1.9	7.9	90.2	(571)	3.26	NS
Single Parent	3.4	6.8	89.8	(118)	8DF	
One or more Single Persons	2.5	8.3	89.2	(435)		
Other	1.5	12.1	86.4	(66)		

Table 12 examines the attitude that "the number of people who are willing to volunteer is decreasing" in relation to the life cycle variables. Significant differences for this attitude were uncovered with regard to respondent's marital status. Respondents who were single expressed no opinion on the subject (32.5%) to a greater extent than those individuals who were married (25.2%). An examination of respondents' family type revealed that single parents were statistically less inclined to have no opinion with regard to this attitude (19.8%) than either couples with no children (28.6%) or one or more single persons (34.3%). Further, it can be seen that the single parents category was most likely to agree that voluntarism was decreasing (68.1%).

A summary of the significant relationships between the five attitudes toward voluntarism and the life cycle variables can be seen in Table 13. Sex was not a differing factor for any of the attitudes. It was found that measurable differences with respect to age occurred for the "personal sacrifices" and the "learn new things through volunteering" attitudes. In both instances, differences were seen between the 35 to 44 age group and the over 64 respondents. With the former attitude, it was found that those aged 35-44 were more inclined to disagree with the implications of this attitude than those who were senior citizens. It was noted earlier that senior citizens are not likely to be volunteers (Carter, 1975; Tomeh, 1973). As such, they might in fact use this viewpoint as a reason for not volunteering. Similarly, the literature showed that people aged 35-44 were more likely to be volunteers (eg. Curtis, 1971; Goldhammer, 1964; Nelson et al., 1978; Reddy and Smith, 1973). It therefore suggests that people who volunteer from this age group might be better able to balance their time appropriately.

With respect to the latter attitude ("learn new things through volunteering"), while both age groups were in overall agreement with the attitude, those aged 35-44 were that much more likely to agree with the attitude than those who were over 64 years of age. Again, as those aged 35-44 were more likely to volunteer than those over 64 years old, the difference in agreement may be due to actual experience as opposed to views that would be concurrent with a societal norm.

TABLE 12
Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Voluntarism is Decreasing: Age, Sex, Marital Status, and Family Type

	Disagreement %	No Opinion %	Agreement %	N	Chi-Square DF	P
	(12.3% of Sample)	(26.8% of Sample)	(60.9% of Sample)			
Age						
Up to 24	12.0	25.3	62.8	(376)		
25 to 34	11.2	30.5	58.3	(786)	11.55	NS
34 to 44	13.6	22.4	64.0	(425)	8DF	
16 to 64	13.5	26.0	60.5	(549)		
65 and over	12.4	27.8	59.8	(194)		
Sex						
Male	13.2	26.4	60.4	(1536)	3.87	NS
Female	10.4	27.4	61.9	(805)	2DF	
Marital Status						
Married	13.4	25.2	61.3	(1652)	15.56	0.000
Single	10.7	32.5	56.8	(421)	4DF	
Other	7.8	27.9	64.3	(269)		
Family Type						
Couple with Children	13.2	22.8	64.0	(1145)		
Couple no Children	12.2	28.6	59.2	(574)		
Single Parent	12.1	19.8	68.1	(116)	34.17	0.000
One or more single Persons	9.9	34.3	55.8	(434)	8DF	
Other	12.3	41.5	46.2	(65)		

TABLE 13

Summary of Significant Relationships: Age, Sex, Marital Status and Family Type with Five Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Socio-Demographic Variable	Meaningful Tasks Exist	Volunteers Important to Community	Personal Sacrifices a Problem	Can Learn New Things	Voluntarism is Decreasing
(Age)					
Up to 24	UD	NS	SD	SA	NS
25 to 34	UD	NS	SD	SA	NS
35 to 44	UD	NS	SD*	SA*	NS
45 to 64	UD	NS	SD	SA	NS
over 64	UD	NS	SD*	SA*	NS
(Sex)					
Male	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Female	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
(Marital Status)					
Married	NS	NS	SD*	NS	NO OP.*
Single	NS	NS	SD	NS	NO OP.*
Other	NS	NS	SD*	NS	NO OP.
(Family Type)					
Couple with Children	UD	UD	NS	NS	SA*
Couple - no Children	UD	UD	NS	NS	SA*
Single Parent	UD	UD	NS	NS	SA**
1/+ Single Persons	UD	UD	NS	NS	SA*
Other	UD	UD	NS	NS	SA*

Legend

SA - significant differences with respect to agreement were uncovered
SD - significant differences with respect to disagreement were uncovered.
NO OP. - significant differences with respect to a no opinion response were uncovered.
UD - significant differences exist but could not be isolated.
NS - no significant differences were found.
* - indicates significant differences with other values in the variable category.

Significant differences were uncovered in the marital status category for the two negative attitudes. First, it was found that more married respondents disagreed with the attitude that "personal sacrifices affected volunteering" to a much greater extent than those under the category of "others" (separated, widowed, divorced). Again, this may demonstrate some attitude influence from actual participation by volunteers, as it was noted previously that those who were married volunteer more than those whose marital status has changed (eg. Babchuk and Booth, 1973; Curtis, 1971).

The other significant difference uncovered in the marital status category was that for the "voluntarism is decreasing" attitude, those who were single were most apt not to have an opinion than those who were married. While this in itself is not really interpretable, a further comparison between the two categories (in Table 12) revealed that married respondents agreed with the ideas suggested by this attitude more than single people did. This again could be a reflection of actual participation by volunteers, as those who were involved would more likely have an idea of what was happening than one who could only speculate the trends.

Finally, it was found that for "family type", those respondents who were classified as single parents were more inclined to agree that "voluntarism was decreasing" than single persons, couples with no children, couples with children, and "others". This finding might be a reflection of the types of services that exist in the community. For example, single parents will probably be among the prime users of community day-care services. However, recent trends have noted cutbacks in government subisidized forms of service, and volunteer agencies do not appear to be willing to step in and provide child care (Qureshi et al., 1979). As a result, the lack of such services might lead single parents to conclude that voluntarism may be decreasing.

TABLE 14
Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude the Volunteers are Given Meaningful Tasks: Education and Income

	Disagreement %	No Opinion %	Agreement %	N	Chi-Square DF	P
	(8.1% of Sample)	(25.4% of Sample)	(66.5% of Sample)			
Education						
Less than High School	6.8	24.4	68.8	(266)	21.68	.001
High School	7.7	22.0	70.3	(740)	6DF	
Technical (Post Secondary)	8.9	23.3	67.8	(683)		
University	8.4	31.6	60.0	(643)		
Income						
Less than $10,000	7.5	27.3	65.2	(187)		
10,000 to 20,000	9.4	26.5	64.1	(468)	2.43	NS
20,000 to 30,000	7.6	24.9	67.5	(566)	8DF	
30,000 to 40,000	8.8	25.1	66.1	(457)		
over 40,000	7.9	25.1	67.0	(494)		

TABLE 15

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Voluntarism is Decreasing: Education and Income

	Disagreement % (12.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (26.8% of Sample)	Agreement % (60.9% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Education						
Less than High School	10.7	23.2	66.1	(271)		
High School	10.6	23.1	66.3	(748)	35.57	0.000
Technical (Post Secondary)	12.6	26.3	61.2	(685)	6DF	
University	14.7	33.7	51.6	(641)		
Income						
Less than $10,000	11.5	26.6	62.0	(192)		
10,000 to 20,000	10.3	29.1	60.6	(467)	11.11	NS
20,000 to 30,000	13.6	22.4	64.0	(567)	8DF	
20,000 to 25,000	14.5	20.4	65.1	(275)		
30,000 to 40,000	13.8	26.5	59.7	(457)		
Over 40,000	12.3	29.3	58.4	(497)		

Socio-Economic Status

Tables 14 through 18 present a comparison between the respondent's education and income and the five attitudes toward voluntarism. It can be seen in Table 14 that with respect to the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks", all educational categories tended to be in strong agreement with its importance. However, 70.3% of those individuals who had achieved a high school education were more inclined to agree with this item than those respondents who were university educated (60%). On the contrary, those with university education were more inclined to have no opinion with the attitude (31.6%) than all of the other categories. No differences among respondents with respect to income was uncovered for this attitude.

With respect to the attitude that "voluntarism is decreasing", Table 15 revealed that those who were university educated were less likely to agree with the statement than all of the other educational categories. No differences were found with this attitude with respect to the five income levels.

Table 16 presents a comparison between the respondents' education and income levels with the attitude "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult". The only significant difference that was revealed with respect to education was that those individuals who had less than a high school education were more inclined to have no opinion (30%) than the other levels of education. With respect to income, it can be seen from this table that those respondents' who earned either $10,000 - $20,000 or $20,000 - $30,000 disagreed with the attitude to a greater extent than those whose income was less than $10,000.

Although no significant differences were uncovered in a comparison of education levels with the attitude that "volunteering gives people a chance to learn new things," Table 17 notes that for income, those who earned less than $10,000 were more likely to have no opinion on the

TABLE 16

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Personal Sacrifices Make Volunteering Difficult: Education and Income

	Disagreement % (36.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (21.5% of Sample)	Agreement % (42.2% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Education						
Less than High School	28.9	30.0	41.1	(270)		
High School	36.8	23.8	39.4	(739)	25.47	0.0003
Technical (Post Secondary)	38.1	17.1	44.2	(683)	6DF	
University	37.5	18.7	43.9	(643)		
Income						
Less than $10,000	28.0	26.5	45.5	(189)		
10,000 to 20,000	39.5	25.4	35.1	(464)	27.26	0.001
20,000 to 30,000	39.2	17.6	43.2	(567)	8DF	
30,000 to 40,000	34.8	18.2	47.0	(457)		
Over 40,000	37.3	19.6	43.1	(496)		

TABLE 17

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteering Gives People a Chance to Learn New Things: Education and Income

	Disagreement % (2.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (8.0% of (Sample)	Agreement % (89.7% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Education						
Less than High School	2.2	10.7	87.1	(272)		
High School	1.5	7.4	91.2	(748)	7.50	NS
Technical (Post Secondary)	2.5	7.7	89.8	(685)	6DF	
University	3.1	7.8	89.1	(643)		
Income						
Less than $10,000	3.1	13.0	83.9	(192)		
10,000 to 20,000	1.9	8.7	89.3	(469)		
20,000 to 30,000	1.9	5.1	93.0	(568)	20.33	0.01
30,000 to 40,000	1.5	8.3	90.2	(457)	8DF	
Over $40,000	3.6	7.3	89.1	(495)		

TABLE 18
Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Important to the Community: Education and Income

	Disagreement % (2.2% of Sample)	No Opinion % (6.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (91.4% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Education						
Less than High School	2.9	7.2	89.9	(276)		
High School	2.0	6.4	91.6	(752)	3.03	NS
Technical (Post Secondary)	1.7	6.1	92.2	(688)	6DF	
University	2.6	5.5	91.8	(650)		
Income						
Less than $10,000	1.0	9.7	89.3	(196)		
10,000 to 20,000	2.5	7.0	90.5	(471)		
20,000 to 30,000	1.4	5.1	93.5	(569)	11.37	NS
30,000 to 40,000	2.4	4.6	93.0	(460)	8DF	
Over $40,000	2.4	6.0	91.6	(500)		

subject than all of the other income levels. With respect to the attitude "volunteers are important to the community", no significant variations in responses existed within either the education or income categories (See Table 18). However, it is important to note that the vast majority of respondents agreed very strongly with these two attitudes on voluntarism.

Tables 19 through 23 present the comparison of respondent's occupation with the five attitudinal statements on voluntarism. In general, occupation was not found to be a major influence on people's opinions regarding voluntarism. It is only with regard to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult" (Table 19) that the chi-square contrast was great enough to record the possibility of significant differences. While the Marascuilo and McSweeney (1977) post hoc tests failed to isolate exactly where the differences occurred, it must be noted that tradesmen (48.1%) and those classified as "others" (54.5%) were highest in agreement with this attitude.

It can be seen from the summary Tables 24 and 25 that for the entire sample, income levels and occupation were not seen as highly influential factors affecting differences in attitude. This means that income and occupation did not appear to influence respondent's agreement or disagreement with respect to the various attitudes on voluntarism. However, it can be seen that there were noted differences in agreement with the attitudes, "volunteers are given meaningful tasks" and "voluntarism is decreasing" with respect to different levels of education.

This may be a reflection of the types of people who volunteer. It was noted previously that volunteers were more likely to have achieved a university education (Allen, 1982; Anderson and Moore, 1974; Curtis, 1971). Based on this, it is possible that negative attitudes among this higher education group could result from an over-abundance of work that has to be completed through volunteering (Kennedy and Zauhar, 1982) or a problem with the type of tasks given to participants (ie. tasks are

TABLE 19
Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Personal Sacrifices make Volunteering Difficult: Occupation

	Disagreement % (26.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (21.5% of Sample)	Agreement % (42.2% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Occupation						
Professional	36.8	18.1	45.1	(421)		
Managerial	36.2	18.1	45.7	(221)		
Technician	38.0	22.8	39.1	(92)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	33.3	21.5	45.2	(93)	35.95 18DF	0.007
Clerical	41.5	19.9	38.5	(366)		
Tradesmen	36.0	15.9	48.1	(339)		
Farmer	40.2	19.6	40.2	(102)		
Unskilled	34.0	24.7	41.2	(97)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	35.3	28.8	35.9	(434)		
Other	22.7	22.7	54.5	(22)		

TABLE 20

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Voluntarism is Decreasing: Occupation

	Disagreement % (12.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (26.8% of Sample)	Agreement % (60.9% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Occupation						
Professional	13.1	32.5	54.4	(421)	29.21 18DF	NS
Managerial	13.0	22.0	65.0	(223)		
Technician	13.2	28.6	58.2	(91)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	17.4	17.4	65.2	(92)		
Clerical	9.8	29.0	61.2	(366)		
Tradesmen	13.0	22.5	64.5	(338)		
Farmer	8.8	22.5	68.6	(102)		
Unskilled	10.2	25.5	64.3	(98)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	13.8	27.1	59.2	(436)		
Other	4.5	40.9	54.5	(22)		

TABLE 21

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Given Meaningful Tasks: Occupation

	Disagreement %	No Opinion %	Agreement %	N	Chi-Square DF	P
	(8.1% of Sample)	(25.4% of Sample)	(66.5% of Sample)			
Occupation						
Professional	7.1	31.8	61.0	(421)	22.82 18DF	NS
Managerial	10.0	23.1	67.0	(221)		
Technician	7.8	25.6	66.7	(90)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	10.8	28.0	61.3	(93)		
Clerical	8.2	21.7	70.1	(364)		
Tradesmen	7.7	25.4	66.9	(338)		
Farmer	6.0	24.0	70.0	(100)		
Unskilled	3.1	25.5	71.4	(98)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	8.2	22.9	68.9	(437)		
Other	4.5	13.6	81.8	(22)		

TABLE 22

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Important to the Community: Occupation

	Disagreement % (2.2% of Sample)	No Opinion % (6.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (91.4% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Occupation						
Professional	3.8	6.3	89.9	(426)		
Managerial	1.8	4.1	94.1	(222)		
Technician	2.2	4.3	93.5	(92)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	1.1	5.4	93.5	(93)	16.42 18DF	NS
Clerical	2.4	4.9	92.7	(371)		
Tradesmen	2.4	7.4	90.3	(340)		
Farmer	1.9	6.8	91.3	(103)		
Unskilled	0.0	6.1	93.9	(99)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	1.1	7.2	91.7	(445)		
Other	0.0	4.5	95.5	(22)		

TABLE 23

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteering Gives People a Chance to Learn New Things: Occupation

	Disagreement % (2.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (8.0% of Sample)	Agreement % (89.7% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Occupation						
Professional	3.6	8.5	87.9	(422)		
Managerial	3.2	5.4	91.4	(222)		
Technician	2.2	5.5	92.3	(91)		
Supervisor/ Foreman	3.3	6.5	90.2	(92)	16.04 18DF	NS
Clerical	1.6	7.0	91.3	(369)		
Tradesmen	2.1	9.5	88.5	(338)		
Farmer	2.9	7.8	89.2	(102)		
Unskilled	2.0	3.1	94.9	(98)		
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	1.8	9.6	88.6	(437)		
Other	0.0	13.6	86.4	(22)		

Table 24

Summary of Significant Relationships: Education and Income with Five Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Socio-Demographic Variable	Meaningful Tasks Exist	Volunteers Important to Community	Personal Sacrifices A Problem	Can Learn New Things	Voluntarism is Decreasing
(Education)					
Less than High School	SA	NS	NO OP*	NS	SA*
High School	SA*	NS	NO OP	NS	SA*
Technical (Post-Secondary	SA	NS	NO OP	NS	SA*
University	SA*	NS	NO OP	NS	SA**
(Income)					
Less than $10,000	NS	NS	SA**	NO OP*	NS
10,000 to 20,000	NS	NS	SA*	NO OP	NS
20,000 to 30,000	NS	NS	SA*	NO OP	NS
30,000 to 40,000	NS	NS	SA	NO OP	NS
Over 40,000	NS	NS	SA	NO OP	NS

Legend

SA - significant differences with respect to agreement were uncovered
NO OP - significant differences with respect to a "no opinion" response were uncovered
UD - significant differences exist but could not be isolated
NS - no significant differences were found.
* - indicates significant differences with other values in the variable category.

Table 25
Summary of Significant Relationships: Occupation with Five Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Socio-Demographic Variable	Meaningful Tasks Exist	Volunteers Important to Community	Personal Sacrifices A Problem	Can Learn New Things	Voluntarism is Decreasing
(Occupation)					
Professional	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Managerial	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Technician	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Supervisor/ Foreman	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Clerical	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Tradesman	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Farmer	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Unskilled	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Student/Retired/ Homemaker	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS
Other	NS	NS	UD	NS	NS

Legend

NS - no significant differences were found for a particular variable.
UD - significant differences exist but could not be isolated.

boring or trivial). With this latter point, it was noted in some research (Allen, 1982; Carter, 1975) that lack of interest in the type of activity can lead to dissatisfaction with volunteering. However, the authors noted that this was not an overriding factor that resulted in participants ceasing their volunteer participation.

Residential Variables

Tables 26 through 30 present the comparisons of the five attitudinal statements with the respondents' general location (urban and rural residence) as well as the specific geographical locations. For all five attitudinal statements, no significant differences were noted among respondents who lived in an urban area as opposed to a rural one. However, some statistically significant differences were uncovered between the specific geographic locations within Alberta.

In Table 26, significant differences between regions were recorded with respect to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult". The post hoc tests failed to isolate specifically where the differences were; however, a closer examination of the table reveals that the respondents who agreed with the implications of this attitude were from the major cities in the province: Calgary (45.8%) and Edmonton (44.6%).

Table 27 presents a comparison with location of respondent's residence and the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks". It was found that a greater proportion of Grande Prairie and area respondents agreed with this statement as compared to those from other regions. In contrast, residents of the Edson and area, Lethbridge and area and Edmonton were more likely to disagree with the idea that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks". However, the actual amount of disagreement registered by these areas (as well as the others) was very small in comparison to the recorded percentage of agreement.

TABLE 26

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Personal Sacrifices make Volunteering Difficult: Urban vs Rural and Provincial Regions

Urban vs. Rural	Disagreement % (36.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (21.5% of Sample)	Agreement % (42.2% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Urban	36.0	21.2	42.8	(2056)	6.03	NS
Rural	43.7	20.6	35.7	(238)	2DF	
Regions						
Lethbridge & Area	38.9	25.0	36.1	(252)		
Calgary	32.5	21.8	45.8	(721)		
Red Deer & Area	42.0	20.5	37.4	(219)	29.75	0.008
St. Paul & Area	42.9	19.6	37.5	(112)	18DF	
Edson & Area	45.1	16.1	38.8	(255)		
Edmonton	33.2	22.2	44.6	(632)		
Grande Prairie	44.8	16.4	38.8	(67)		
Fort McMurray & Area	33.3	26.7	40.0	(45)		

TABLE 27

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are given Meaningful Tasks: Urban vs Rural and Provincial Regions

Urban vs. Rural	Disagreement % (8.1% of Sample)	No Opinion % (25.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (66.5% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Urban	8.2	25.4	66.5	(2058)	0.57	
Rural	6.8	26.4	66.8	(235)	2DF	NS
Regions						
Lethbridge & Area	9.1	23.0	67.9	(252)		
Calgary	7.9	28.4	63.6	(718)		
Red Deer & Area	6.4	21.8	71.8	(220)		
St. Paul & Area	4.5	20.7	74.8	(111)	25.47	0.03
Edson & Area	9.9	19.4	70.8	(253)	14DF	
Edmonton	8.8	27.9	63.3	(635)		
Grande Prairie & Area	1.4	20.3	78.3	(69)		
Fort McMurray & Area	6.8	25.0	68.2	(44)		

TABLE 28

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Voluntarism is Decreasing: Urban vs Rural and Provincial Regions

Urban vs. Rural	Disagreement % (12.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (26.8% of Sample)	Agreement % (60.9% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Urban	12.1	27.0	60.9	(2063)	0.75	NS
Rural	13.4	24.7	61.9	(239)	2DF	
Regions						
Lethbridge & Area	11.4	21.6	67.1	(255)		
Calgary	9.7	28.4	62.0	(723)		
Red Deer & Area	15.9	20.0	64.1	(220)	40.71	0.0002
St. Paul & Area	15.7	16.7	67.6	(108)	14DF	
Edson & Area	15.2	23.0	61.7	(256)		
Edmonton	12.1	33.2	54.6	(635)		
Grande Prairie & Area	11.6	26.1	62.3	(69)		
Fort McMurray & Area	15.9	18.2	65.9	(44)		

TABLE 29

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteering Gives People a Chance to Learn New Things: Urban vs Rural and Provincial Regions

Urban vs. Rural	Disagreement % (2.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (8.0% of Sample)	Agreement % (89.7% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Urban	2.3	7.8	89.9	(2065)	0.16	NS
Rural	2.5	8.4	89.1	(239)	2DF	
Regions						
Lethbridge & Area	2.8	9.1	88.1	(253)		
Calgary	2.1	9.1	88.8	(722)		
Red Deer & Area	1.8	5.9	92.3	(220)	17.51	NS
St. Paul & Area	1.8	4.6	93.6	(109)	14DF	
Edson & Area	3.1	5.5	91.4	(256)		
Edmonton	1.9	8.3	89.8	(638)		
Grande Prairie & Area	2.9	2.9	94.3	(70)		
For McMurray & Area	6.7	13.3	80.0	(45)		

TABLE 30

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are important to the Community: Urban vs Rural and Provincial Regions

Urban vs. Rural	Disagreement % (2.2% of Sample)	No Opinion % (6.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (91.4% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Urban	2.2	6.2	91.6	(2083)	0.09	
Rural	2.1	6.6	91.3	(241)	1DF	NS
Regions						
Lethbridge & Area	3.9	7.0	89.1	(257)		
Calgary	2.1	5.2	92.7	(730)		
Red Deer & Area	0.0	7.3	92.7	(220)	16.57	NS
St. Paul & Area	1.8	5.3	93.0	(114)	14DF	
Edson & Area	2.0	5.5	92.6	(256)		
Edmonton	2.5	6.9	90.6	(641)		
Grande Prairie & Area	1.4	4.3	94.3	(70)		
Fort McMurray & Area	2.2	13.3	84.4	(45)		

TABLE 31

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Given Meaningful Tasks: Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time in Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Disagreement % (8.1% of Sample)	No Opinion % (25.4% of Sample)	Agreement % (66.5% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Dwelling Type						
Apartment	9.9	31.1	59.0	(312)		
House	7.7	23.7	68.7	(1567)	19.53	0.01
Attached House	8.0	29.4	62.6	(337)	8DF	
Mobile Home	11.0	24.0	65.0	(100)		
Other	0.0	11.1	88.9	(18)		
Ownership						
Rent	10.3	24.3	60.4	(697)	17.64	0.0001
Own	7.0	23.9	69.1	(1605)	2DF	
Time in Dwelling						
Up to 1 Year	10.1	28.5	61.4	(505)		
1-2 Years	7.4	27.3	65.2	(512)		
3-5 Years	7.2	24.0	68.8	(487)	13.83	NS
6-10 Years	6.8	26.0	67.2	(311)	8DF	
Over 10 Years	8.8	21.4	69.8	(513)		
Time in Alberta						
Up to 1 Year	15.1	26.4	58.5	(53)		
1-2 Years	10.4	29.6	60.0	(125)	13.01	NS
3-5 Years	7.7	30.2	62.2	(222)	8DF	
6-10 Years	10.1	27.5	62.4	(218)		
Over 10 Years	7.6	24.2	68.2	(1701)		

With respect to the attitudes that "voluntarism is decreasing", (Table 28) significant differences were uncovered within the geographic regions. The post hoc tests could not isolate the differences, but it can be seen that residents from Edmonton and Calgary were more likely to have no opinion about the statement than any of the other regions. No significant differences were uncovered with respect to the attitudes "voluntarism gives people a chance to learn new things" (Table 29) and "volunteers are important to the community" (Table 30).

Tables 31 through 35 present the comparisons of the five attitudes toward voluntarism with respondents' dwelling type, ownership status of dwelling, length of time within the dwelling as well as within the province. In Table 31, it can be seen that significant differences were uncovered with regard to the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks" for the dwelling type and ownership status. With the former variable, the post hoc tests could not isolate where the differences occurred.13 However, with respect to ownership, it can be seen from this table that 69.1% of the respondents who owned their dwelling were more inclined to agree with this attitude than those who rented (60.4%).

Similar trends were noted for the attitude that "voluntarism is decreasing" (see Table 32). The only statistically significant differences that occurred were with respect to the type of dwelling and ownership of the dwelling. With the type of dwelling, it can be seen that those in mobile homes were more inclined to agree with this attitude than those in the other types of dwellings. In addition, those who rented their dwellings were more inclined to have no opinion than those who were owners. There were no significant differences found when the views about the attitudes "volunteers are important to the community" (Table 33), "volunteering gives people a change to learn new things" (Table 34), and "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult" (Table 35) were examined in relation to the residence factors.

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13 It can be seen from this table that respondents from the "other" category had a very high percentage of agreement. However, the actual number of respondents in this category were far less than those who lived in apartments, houses, attached houses and mobile homes.

TABLE 32

Comparison with Respondents' Agreement with the Attitude that Voluntarism is Decreasing: Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time in Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Disagreement % (12.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (26.8% of Sample)	Agreement % (60.9% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Dwelling Type						
Apartment	10.3	32.7	57.1	(312)		
House	13.0	25.5	61.5	(1576)	16.48	0.04
Attached House	12.5	28.8	58.8	(337)	8DF	
Mobile Home	6.9	19.6	73.5	(102)		
Other	5.9	35.3	58.8	(17)		
Ownership						
Rent	10.3	30.7	58.9	(696)	8.42	0.02
Own	13.0	25.4	61.5	(1675)	2DF	
Time in Dwelling						
Up to 1 Year	11.3	28.4	60.3	(504)		
1-2 Years	12.4	28.8	58.8	(510)	6.85	NS
3-5 Years	11.1	25.5	63.4	(494)	8DF	
6-10 Years	12.6	28.4	59.0	(317)		
Over 10 Years	13.8	23.7	62.5	(517)		
Time in Alberta						
Up to 1 Year	13.2	26.4	60.4	(53)		
1-2 Years	15.3	33.1	51.6	(124)	9.000	NS
3-5 Years	11.2	30.0	58.7	(223)	8DF	
6-10 Years	11.9	30.3	57.8	(218)		
Over 10 Years	11.9	25.5	62.5	(1711)		

TABLE 33

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteers are Important to the Community: Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time in Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Disagreement % (2.2% of Sample)	No Opinion % (6.4% of Sample	Agreement % (91.4% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Dwelling Type						
Apartment	2.2	6.3	91.4	(315)		
House	2.1	6.7	91.1	(1591)	4.19	NS
Attached House	1.8	5.6	92.7	(341)	8DF	
Mobile Home	2.0	3.9	94.1	(102)		
Other	5.6	0.0	94.4	(18)		
Ownership						
Rent	2.8	7.0	90.2	(703)	3.14	NS
Own	1.9	5.9	92.2	(1630)	2DF	
Time in Dwelling						
Up to 1 Year	2.4	6.3	91.3	(506)		
1-2 Years	1.9	6.0	92.1	(517)		
3-5 Years	2.0	6.2	91.8	(501)	2.16	NS
6-10 Years	3.2	6.0	90.8	(316)	8DF	
Over 10 Years	1.9	6.7	91.4	(522)		
Time in Alberta						
Up to 1 Year	0.0	7.3	92.7	(55)		
1-2 Years	3.2	7.2	89.6	(125)	2.96	NS
3-5 Years	1.8	6.7	91.5	(224)	8DF	
6-10 Years	2.3	5.0	92.7	(220)		
Over 10 Years	2.3	6.4	91.4	(1728)		

TABLE 34

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Volunteering Gives People a Chance to Learn New Things: Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time in Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Disagreement % (2.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (8.0% of Sample)	Agreement % (89.7% of Sample	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Dwelling Type						
Apartment	1.6	8.3	90.2	(315)		
House	2.7	8.2	89.1	(1577)	8.86	NS
Attached House	1.2	8.0	90.8	(337)	8DF	
Mobile Home	4.0	4.0	92.1	(101)		
Other	0.0	0.0	100.0	(17)		
Ownership						
Rent	2.6	7.7	89.7	(700)	0.27	NS
Own	2.2	7.9	89.8	(1613)	2DF	
Time in Dwelling						
Up to 1 Year	2.2	8.9	88.9	(504)		
1-2 Years	2.1	6.1	91.8	(512)	10.02	NS
3-5 Years	1.8	6.6	91.6	(499)	8DF	
6-10 Years	2.2	9.3	88.5	(313)		
Over 10 Years	3.3	9.5	87.2	(514)		
Time in Alberta						
Up to 1 Year	1.9	5.6	92.6	(54)		
1-2 Years	2.4	7.2	90.4	(125)	1.99	NS
3-5 Years	2.2	7.6	90.2	(224)	8DF	
6-10 Years	2.3	6.3	91.4	(221)		
Over 10 Years	2.4	8.4	89.2	(1708)		

TABLE 35

Comparison of Respondents Agreement with the Attitude that Personal Sacrifices make Volunteering Difficult: Dwelling Type, Ownership, Time in Dwelling and Time in Alberta

	Disagreement % (36.3% of Sample)	No Opinion % (21.5% of Sample)	Agreement % (42.2% of Sample)	N	Chi-Square DF	P
Dwelling Type						
Apartment	33.2	23.9	42.9	(310)		
House	37.9	20.3	41.8	(1574)	11.94	NS
Attached House	34.6	21.5	43.9	(335)	8DF	
Mobile Home	34.7	25.7	39.6	(101)		
Other	6.3	37.5	56.3	(16)		
Ownership						
Rent	35.1	21.0	43.9	(692)	1.21	NS
Own	37.1	21.4	41.5	(1611)	2DF	
Time in Dwelling						
Up to 1 Year	35.5	20.4	44.1	(501)		
1-2 Years	36.0	22.0	42.0	(514)	12.29	NS
3-5 Years	36.0	17.9	46.1	(492)	8DF	
6-10 Years	38.1	20.8	41.0	(312)		
Over 10 Years	36.9	25.4	37.7	(512)		
Time in Alberta						
Up to 1 Year	31.5	24.1	44.4	(54)		
1-2 Years	44.0	18.4	37.6	(125)	6.95	NS
3-5 Years	34.2	20.3	45.5	(222)	8DF	
6-10 Years	38.7	18.0	43.3	(217)		
Over 10 Years	35.9	22.2	41.9	(4703)		

It can be seen from the previous tables that there were very few significant differences found by comparing residential factors with attitudes toward voluntarism. Previous literature on attitudes toward voluntarism has focused more on the life cycle and socio-economic status of individuals and not on residential factors. The one exception was a study by Freeman et al. (1957) who noted that people would display positive attitudes toward voluntarism and be more likely to participate, the longer they remained within their residence (and within the community). However, it was found in the present study that the time spent in the dwelling and in the region were not factors effecting attitudes toward voluntarism. Therefore, any differences between attitudes toward voluntarism and residential variables in the present study were due to individual differences within the sample.

Summary

In general, it was found that among the overall sample, the socio-demographic characteristics were not major influences on the degree to which respondents agreed or disagreed with the five attitude statements. The average amount of agreement with the positive attitudes toward voluntarism was far higher than the amount of disagreement. For the attitude "volunteers are important to the community", on the average, 91.4% of the sample agreed with this, while only 2.2% of the respondents disagreed. This trend was seen for all of the socio-demographic characteristics. Similar trends were seen for the attitude "volunteering gives people a chance to learn new things", as 89.7% of the sample agreed, while only 2.3% of the sample disagreed. Finally, it was found that the average amount of agreement decreased somewhat with respect to the attitude "volunteers are given meaningful tasks", as an average of 66.5% of the sample agreed with the statement. However, disagreement remained low, as only 8.1% of the sample disagreed with this attitude. The overall high amounts of agreement with these positive attitudes on voluntarism generally indicates that despite their socio-demographic differences, people tend to feel that voluntarism is a beneficial means of serving the community and providing some form of personal growth for the participant.

With respect to the less optimistic views on voluntarism, it was found that the socio-demographic categories showed little variation with respect to the amount of agreement and disagreement. In general, it was noted that the average amount of agreement with the attitude "voluntarism is decreasing" was held by 60.9% of the sample, while 12.3% of the sample disagreed. The amount of agreement expressed about this attitude might suggest that people are noticing a decline in volunteer participation, irregardless of their socio-demographic characteristics. Finally, it was found that with respect to the attitude "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult", respondents were divided on the amount of agreement and disagreement expressed. On the average, 42.2% of the sample agreed with the statement, while 36.3% disagreed. Dispite socio-demographic differences, it can be concluded that overall, some people can balance voluntarism with other activities or commitments, while others cannot.

These overall trends should not suggest that specific differences within particular socio-demographic characteristics did not occur with respect to attitude. Rather, some differences were observed. Further, it was determined that differences within the socio-demographic variables for the overall sample were the same socio-demographic differences noted when the volunteer was compared with the non-volunteer. For example, the characteristics of those most likely to express positive attitudes towards voluntarism conformed to the profiles of volunteers while those agreeing with the negative attitudes tended to have characteristics of non-volunteers.

With respect to the attitude "volunteers are given meaningful tasks", there was high agreement expressed by couples who had children and single parents, as well as by residential home owners.

While no significant differences were uncovered within the life cycle, socio-economic status, and residential variables for the attitude "volunteers are important to the community", it was found that in almost all instances, the socio-demographic categories associated with the volunteer respondents registered a slightly higher percentage of agreement than those categories linked with the non-volunteer respondents.

With respect to the attitude "one can learn new things through volunteering", participants who were between the age of 35-44 years were slightly more likely to agree with this statement in comparison to other age groups, particularly those over 65.

The findings associated with the attitude "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult" also reinforced some previous findings with respect to the socio-demographic characteristics of the volunteer and non-volunteer. Respondents who were married and those between the ages of 35 to 44 disagreed with this statement more than respondents from the other age groups and those who were separated, divorced or widowed. Respondents who agreed with this attitude tended to be those under 35 years of age who had high school education or less and came from the major cities of Calgary and Edmonton.

Those most likely to agree with the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing" were single parents and those living in mobile homes. Those less likely to agree with this statement were people with university education.

Chapter 4

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In general, this study found that there was a tendency for volunteers in Alberta to have certain attributes or characteristics that were different from non-volunteers within the numerous socio-economic/demographic and attitudinal variables examined in the study.

It should be noted that the recommendations related to the survey results are only applicable to volunteers and non-volunteers in general within the province of Alberta. They do not apply specifically to volunteers serving in recreational associations and agencies. This is because the survey instrument itself did not differentiate between volunteers in general and volunteers in the recreational sector.

With this limitation in mind, some attempt has been made in this study to provide a substantial literature review which covers the relationship of recreation to voluntarism under the topic areas of participation, attitudes, motivation, and socio-economic and demographic variables. Thus, there may be a number of implications for municipal recreation departments, provincial recreation associations and Alberta Recreation and Parks which may be obtained from this review at the discretion of those parties. However, it must be noted that these findings are based on studies done elsewhere and with various types of samples. Therefore, any implications which may arise from them may have only limited applicability to Alberta.

This chapter will outline the findings, implications and recommendations relating to the interpreted results found in Chapter 3 of this study. In this regard, separate sections will deal with the implications and recommendations arising from the following topics: socio-economic and demographic variables, attitudes toward voluntarism, and attitudes and socio-demographic trends. A final subsection will look at recommendations for future research in the area of voluntarism in the recreation sector.

Socio-economic and Demographic Variables

Life-Cycle Variables

Findings and Implications. This study found that people were more likely to volunteer (than not volunteer) if they were married, between the ages of 35 to 44 and had children between the ages of 6 to 17. There did not appear to be any significant difference between males and females regarding their propensity to volunteer or not. The relationship between age and volunteer participation was curvilinear, peaking at age 35 to 44 and decreasing toward the youngest and oldest age groups.

When combining the findings of age, marital status, household type and age of household members, it would appear evident that younger middle aged people (age 35 to 44) who are married and have school aged children have a greater propensity to volunteer. Thus participation seems to reach its peak at this stage of the life cycle when people are becoming entrenched in important roles associated with career, family and community. Volunteer participation is an activity that fits in with these role obligations.

The presence of school children within volunteer households may make people more aware of their own parental and community roles, particularly with regard to youth leadership activities (eg. scouts, 4-H Club, minor sports, etc.). Many feel that they owe an obligation to "take their turn" in terms of being leaders in youth service programs. Young single people who have not yet entered this middle life stage have less of a tendency to volunteer. Married couples with no children seem to have a slightly greater propensity to volunteer than singles which may reflect increasing career responsibilities and correspondingly more pressure to be affiliated with voluntary associations. Although volunteer participation by young married couples with pre-school children is reasonably high, greater participation, particularly by women, may be dampened by constraints placed on them by young children. As well, they may lack incentive to participate as leaders in youth programs until their children are old enough to participate. Single parents may be even further constrained by their family and career responsibilities which prevent them from having a great deal of free time to devote to volunteer activities. As people enter the older life stages, disengagement occurs from some of the roles associated with family and career and this is reflected in these peoples' declining volunteer participation.

Recommendations:

1. Municipal recreation departments and provincial recreation associations may obtain greater success if they direct their recruitment drives toward younger middle aged couples (35 to 44) with school aged children. Least success will be obtained from the youngest and oldest age groups (up to 24 and over 64 years) and from those single people with no children.

2. Other groups that bear secondary consideration for recruitment strategies are the 25 to 34 and 45 to 64 age groups, married people, and couples with children of other age categories.

Socio-economic Status

Findings and Implications. The study findings suggested a positive relationship between socio-economic status and participation as a volunteer. Volunteers were more likely to have higher education and income and to be involved in white collar and technical professions. On the other hand, greater percentages of non-volunteers were less educated, had lower incomes and came from blue collar, clerical and unskilled occupations.

The specific findings for each component variable were also of some interest. In terms of education, the highest percentage of volunteers (as opposed to non-volunteers) were found in the university education category. The highest percentage of non-volunteers on the other hand tended to have less than high school education. The relationship between education and volunteer participation in this case was quite positive and direct, with the percentage of those who were volunteers rising through each successive level of education.

Implications arising from the income results suggest that middle income people tend to be volunteers much more than those people from the lower incomes. The higher percentage of volunteers in the $20,000 to $30,000 bracket suggests that this income level may correspond to other life cycle variables. This income bracket may conform to the younger middle aged people who are becoming established in roles associated with career, family and the community, and their volunteer activity is reflected in this.

The findings on occupational status generally indicate a positive relationship between the higher educated occupations (ie. Technicians, Managerial and Professional) and volunteer participation. However one notable exception to this trend was found for the Farmer category which ranked the highest of all occupations in terms of percentage of volunteers. In fact it was the only occupation which had a majority of volunteers as opposed to non-volunteers (60.4%). This corresponds to results found in the next section of this report which indicates that higher percentages of rural people tend to volunteer than urban people.

Occupations that had higher percentages of non-volunteers were the supervisor/foreman, trades, clerical and unskilled occupations which are representative of the blue-collar and clerical occupations. Students, retired people and homemakers tended to rank between the white and blue collar workers in terms of percentages of non-volunteers.

These findings suggest that farmers are by far the most likely to be volunteers in Alberta. Following them are the white collar occupations, the non-employed categories of students, retired people and homemakers, and finally the clerical and blue collar occupations.

In summary, a positive relationship between socio-economic status and volunteer participation is supported by the findings. It would appear therefore that the educated middle class tend to be volunteers in Alberta. Notwithstanding this finding, the farming occupation also represents an important source of volunteers. These groups of people would therefore seem to represent a highly integrated section of society which adheres to middle class values, roles and responsibilities. One of these middle class responsibilities is represented in voluntary action. Thus it is suggested that middle class people often seek to support community functions and goals as well as their own lifestyles through voluntarism. Further, they have the education, skills, status and moreover, the confidence necessary to attain these goals for themselves and their community.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that recreation associations and agencies that have contact with rural areas consider people in the farming occupation as a good source of volunteers.

2. Although people of all socio-economic statuses volunteer, those most likely to do so tend to come from the more educated middle class who are involved in the white collar and technical occupations. Therefore, it is recommended that recruitment strategies be directed towards these people.

Residential Variables

Findings and Implications. The findings respecting rural and urban differences suggested that a significantly higher percentage of rural people were volunteers as compared to urban people. Correspondingly, urban people were much more likely to be non-volunteers than rural people.

This trend corresponds with the findings on volunteer participation in the various regions in Alberta. In this regard, the higher percentages of volunteers were from the more rural areas such as St. Paul, Grande Prairie and High Prairie followed by slightly lower percentages from areas containing small cities such as Lethbridge and Red Deer. The lowest percentages of volunteers came from the major urban centres of Edmonton and Calgary. This trend suggests a negative relationship between population density and propensity to volunteer in Alberta.

The above two findings are also complemented by the high degree of volunteer participation evidenced by the farming occupation which was noted in the last section.

With regard to dwelling type and ownership, higher percentages of volunteers were single family home owners. Non-volunteers were more likely to be apartment renters.

In terms of the variables pertaining to length of residence, there appeared to be a positive correlation between volunteer participation and the length of residence within the respondent's dwelling as well as within Alberta. Therefore, those least likely to volunteer were those who had resided in their dwelling and in Alberta the least amount of time.

With regard to these latter residential findings, it would appear that those who are more firmly established in their communities are most likely to volunteer. This is represented by higher percentages of volunteers who are long term residents and owners of single family houses. These findings also follow those suggested in earlier sections that the more stable middle class and middle aged family person will be more likely to volunteer.

Recommendations:

1. Recreation agencies and associations which deal with rural populations or those agencies or associations found in the smaller cities or less populated regions of Alberta should take note of the potential higher degree of willingness of their local populations to do volunteer work.

2. Recruitment strategies might have more success in more firmly established districts or communities, particularly those in which people own single family houses.

Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Volunteers vs Non-Volunteers

Findings and Implications. With respect to the five attitudes toward voluntarism, some interesting trends of agreement and disagreement were noted for both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. Overall, it was found that there was a very high percentage of agreement with the attitudes that "volunteers are important to the community" and "one can learn new things through voluntarism" by both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. The only difference was that for both statements, the percentage of the volunteers in agreement was slightly higher than for the non-volunteers. However, the high amount of agreement found with respect to these attitudes suggests that for the most part, people in Alberta seem to feel that voluntarism is a beneficial mechanism, both in the functioning of a community as well as in fulfilling individual needs and interests. Further, this attitude generally exists regardless of whether or not a person actually participates as a volunteer.

Volunteer and non-volunteer respondents also tended to be in agreement with the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks." However, the amount of agreement that was noted was less than that registered for the previous two attitudes. It was also found that those who were volunteers were more likely to agree with this attitude than those who were not volunteers.

While agreement among respondents was moderately high with respect to this attitude, the fact that there was less agreement here compared to the previous two positive attitudes may suggest a number of things. It may reflect some people's experiences with volunteering in which they found volunteer tasks to be less meaningful than desired (i.e. menial or non-productive). Alternatively, some volunteers may perceive that their tasks are not meaningful to the agency simply because volunteer managers fail to provide enough feedback and recognition as to the integral role they play in the agency. It may also reflect a general lack of public awareness of the responsible and often sophisticated tasks that volunteers perform in an agency or community.

With respect to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult," volunteers were more likely to disagree with the attitude than to agree with it. Non-volunteers, on the other hand, were more likely to agree with the attitude than disagree with it. The findings here have three implications. Among volunteers, the moderately high disagreement with the attitude suggests that many of those who volunteer seem to be able to balance voluntarism with other life activities. However, the finding that one third of the volunteers agreed with this attitude indicates that some people may have a problem with the amount of time that they have available for volunteering. This may suggest that some people may be dissatisfied with their volunteer experiences (i.e. suffer from "burnout"), but continue to volunteer because they feel they have to rather than because they want to. An alternate explanation is that people may enjoy volunteering but may have overriding time commitments to other interests in their lives (i.e. work or family) which make it difficult for them to volunteer. Among non-volunteers, a moderately high agreement suggests that the idea of personal sacrifices may be a factor that keeps people from volunteering. Research confirms that volunteer dropout and lack of willingness to join is caused by such factors as: lack of time, being too busy, job, school and family responsibilities, and personal reasons.

Finally, with respect to the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing", it was found that there was a moderate amount of agreement with this attitude for both volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. Among volunteers, the relatively high amount of agreement may be due to the amount of work that they are doing. If they are given more tasks than they can handle, it is possible that people might wonder if there are fewer volunteers around to share the workload. It may also suggest that volunteers have found that the agencies in which they participate have experienced difficulty in recruiting new volunteers and retaining them for any period of time. This may promote the attitude that volunteers are becoming harder to find. Regardless of the origin of this negative attitude, a concerted public relations program could conceivably promote a more positive image of voluntarism and do justice to the large number of people who do contribute their time.

The responses to both pessimistic attitude statements suggest that there may be problems with volunteer management (or lack thereof) in the volunteer sector. Two identified areas of concern are volunteer recruitment and problems with turnover. There is ample evidence in this report to suggest that much of Alberta's population has done volunteer work in the recent past. In order to further tap this potential volunteer force, it is necessary to understand volunteer recruitment strategies and effectively direct these toward potential volunteer populations. In addition, some emphasis in volunteer programs should be placed on the retention of volunteers in fulfilling tasks and the prevention of volunteer burnout and dropout.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that agencies such as Alberta Recreation and Parks consider conducting publicity programs to make the public aware of who volunteers are, to identify the important tasks that volunteers do for the community and to promote a positive image of the volunteer movement.

2. It is recommended that volunteer associations and agencies develop methods by which the volunteer is given feedback and recognition for the work that he provides to the community or agency. It is further recommended that agencies such as Alberta Recreation and Parks try to provide ideas to these agencies on how to recognize or reward volunteers;

3. It is recommended that agencies should try to provide appropriate tasks that will be meaningful to the volunteers themselves as well as to the agency. In other words, tasks that give the volunteer a sense of intrinsic satisfaction and personal fulfillment will be more meaningful to the volunteer than tasks or duties which the volunteer finds dull or trivial and he/she dislikes doing. Providing the volunteer with satisfying duties will also aid in the retention of volunteers.

4. It is recommended that volunteer associations and agencies become knowledgeable about volunteer management methods and techniques.

5. It is recommended that government departments such as Alberta Recreation and Parks assist volunteer associations and agencies by offering them accessible and ongoing volunteer management training courses.

Attitudes and Socio-Demographic Trends

Findings and Implications

In general, the socio-demographic characteristics were not found to be very influential with respect to the amount of agreement or disagreement expressed on the five attitudes toward voluntarism. The significant differences that occurred were found within the socio-demographic variables age, marital status, education, provincial regions and home-ownership. However, these differences reflected similar trends that were noted earlier in the report when socio-demographic characteristics were compared with whether or not a respondent was a volunteer. In other words, those most likely to agree with the positive statements on voluntarism tended to have characteristics of volunteers while those agreeing with the pessimistic views had many attributes of non-volunteers.

The findings did suggest however, that those types of people expressing negative attitudes towards voluntarism may require special attention by the volunteer sector. For example, single parents tended to express the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing." These people may be finding that their own personal situation warrants assistance from volunteer agencies and they have noticed more difficulty in obtaining help in recent years. Younger people and the less educated were more likely to agree that "personal sacrifices make it difficult to volunteer." This suggests that steps should be taken to make it possible for these types of people to participate without personal hardship.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that government and volunteer agencies catalogue the types of services that volunteers provide and make this information available to the general public and particularly to those who may be in need of the services (i.e. single parents). It may also be necessary to develop and target volunteer programs that meet the special needs of the single parent.

2. It is recommended that volunteer agencies and associations consider adjusting their volunteer programs to make them more flexible for those types of people who would like to volunteer but find the personal sacrifices of voluntarism too much to handle.

Recommendations for Future Research

As noted earlier, this study is somewhat hampered by the fact that the survey questions do not relate specifically to the subject of recreation in voluntarism. Neither of the two main categories of questions on either volunteer participation or attitudes toward volunteer participation related specifically to the recreation sector. Both of these questions are directed towards voluntarism in general. With this in mind, the results themselves reflect only general trends of voluntarism in Alberta. Therefore, the implications are not exclusively applicable to the recreation sector but apply to any association or agency in Alberta that may utilize volunteers.

This does not suggest that the results are not of any use to recreation agencies or associations. On the contrary, the findings suggest important trends in volunteer participation and indicate that certain people have a greater propensity to volunteer than others. Further, these characteristics were generally supported by the literature on voluntarism. Thus, the results have some important implications for recruitment of volunteers by recreation associations, agencies and municipal recreation departments that utilize volunteers. In addition, the attitudinal results show some interesting trends that suggest policy implications for the various levels of private and public sector recreation.

Notwithstanding this, it is suggested that some consideration be given to future research that looks specifically at the role of voluntarism in the recreation sector. Such a study should focus on the various recreational associations, agencies and government departments that utilize volunteers, to determine if recreation sector volunteers exhibit specific social and psychological characteristics not found in the larger arena of voluntary action.

One area in particular which bears future investigation is alluded to throughout much of the literature review in this study. This area deals with the differences between socio-economic characteristics and motivations of volunteers who participate in instrumental vs. expressive volunteer associations. Of key interest is the fact that expressive organizations are very recreational in nature; that is, they provide leisure activities and pastimes that satisfy important inner needs for individuals. The literature suggests that certain types of people may be more motivated than others to be volunteers in these types of organizations. Further, it suggests that they come from different socio-economic and demographic backgrounds. Knowledge of the motivations and characteristics of these "expressive volunteers" may assist recreational organizations in terms of recruitment, and the management and retention of these types of volunteers.

Another area of interest includes investigation into the realm of direct service volunteers who have "face to face" interaction with clients in the recreational field. These volunteers often work with larger government agencies or autonomous associations and often involve themselves in recreation services such as youth leadership programs, special populations recreation, municipal recreation programs, environmental and outdoor education, and museum docent programs. The literature in this area, although sparse, does indicate some important differences between youth-serving and recreation service volunteers as compared to other more traditional direct service volunteers in the health and social services sector.

In any event, it is recommended that future research should attempt to provide a clearer profile of recreation sector volunteers in terms of participation characteristics, motivations and socio-economic and demographic characteristics. It is suggested that this may indeed be of some use if future trends turn toward an increased emphasis on indirect recreation service delivery systems and a greater reliance on the private non-profit and profit sectors of society. Thus greater knowledge of the voluntary potential of a community may indeed be needed in the future, particularly if current predictions provide to be true (see in particular Fichter and Scott, 1979; Godbey, 1980; Gold, 1980; Goodale, 1980). In this regard, we may expect to see government cutbacks of recreation services in the ensuing years in response to rising public concern over increased taxes and government expenditures as well as increasing sentiments that the private sector can do just as good a job. In summary, these trends of the future are perhaps best stated by Gold (1980:127-128) in the following quote:

> A new spirit of self help, voluntarism and community involvement is emerging in many places. This spirit recognizes the limits of government in solving many human problems. It senses a degree of commitment, responsibility and resourcefulness that can be used by people to help design, develop and maintain urban parks.... The expectations of professionals or government doing everything may be passe, fiscally impossible or not serve the best interests of people.
>
> The logic of voluntary simplicity, self-sufficiency and self-directed leisure is the wave of the future. This idea, coupled with the philosophy of alternative, non-competitive programs...implies drastic changes in our approach to program leadership. It casts the professional as an enabler or resource person and the citizen as the volunteer leader....
>
> The 'withering of city hall' and 'strategy for attrition' of local government is an irreversible trend in the 1980's.... Public leisure services that are not self-supporting or subsidized by charitable donations or voluntary efforts will become endangered species.

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APPENDIX A

Original Wording and Format of Questions Pertaining to Voluntarism, from the _1981 Public Opinion Survey on Recreation_.

A. Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

The following five statements on attitudes toward voluntarism were found in Section 3, Question 7 in the _Public Opinion Survey on Recreation_.

7. Volunteers work in many areas of organized recreation. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (Check all items.)

	Disagree	Agree	No opinion
Volunteers are given meaningful tasks.	☐	☐	☐
Volunteers have an important role in the community.	☐	☐	☐
The personal sacrifices of volunteering make it difficult for me to participate as a volunteer.	☐	☐	☐
Volunteers have a chance to learn new things.	☐	☐	☐
The number of people who are willing to volunteer is decreasing. ...	☐	☐	☐

B. Volunteer Participation

The following questions on volunteer participation were originally asked in Section 4, Questions 5 and 6 of the survey questionnaire.

5. Did you work as a volunteer in the past 12 months?

Yes ☐ No ☐

6. (a) Did any members of your household work as volunteers in the past twelve months?

Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) If yes, how many members of your household worked as volunteers?

Please specify number of people. ____________________

APPENDIX B

Mathematical Basis and Derivation of Marascuilo and McSweeney's Post Hoc Procedure for Chi-Square Significance

The mathematical justification for chi-square is based on a null hypothesis (Ho), which states that various categories within a particular characteristic are going to be the same.[1] For example, the null hypothesis for marital status in the present study for volunteers and non volunteers is as follows:

Volunteer sample	Ho: married = single = other (or p_1 = p2 = p3)
Non-Volunteer sample	Ho: married = single = other (or q1 = q2 = q3)

When the null hypotheses have been rejected by a chi-square test of homogeneity, an investigator might wish to determine the relationship among p_1 p_2 p_3 and q_1 q_2 q_3 that have led to its rejection.

The purpose for using a post hoc test procedure is to reduce the probability of making a Type I error (rejection of the null hypothesis) when it should have been the acceptable alternative. According to Marascuilo and McSweeney (1977:143-144):

> If the null hypothesis, Ho: p_1=p_2 ... = pk, is rejected at the alpha level[2] by a chi-square test of homogeneity, then at least one confidence interval based on a weighted sum of the p_1 p_2 ...pk will be statistically significant at the alpha level. This property of the simultaneous confidence interval procedure does not guarantee that the investigator will find a statistically significant pair comparison or that a significant confidence interval, when found, will be experimentally meaningful. On the other hand, it does assure the investigator that he has rejected the null hypothesis for cause, in that there is at least one non-zero contrast among the population proportions, although it is not necessarily a simple one.

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[1] Another way of interpreting this is that the difference between categories equals zero.

[2] The alpha level for rejection of the null hypothesis in this study was set at p less than .05.

An example of the procedure, using data from the present study is illustrated as follows.

Below is Table XB-1 noting the frequencies of volunteers and non-volunteers with respect to marital status.

Table XB-1 Statistics for Marital Status and Voluntarism

	MARITAL STATUS			
Respondent Volunteer	Married	Single	Other	Total
V Yes	749	124	86	959
No	913	295	189	1397
TOTAL	1662	419	275	2356
a Proportion Volunteering	.45	.30	.31	
b Square SE of Proportion	.0001	.0005	.0008	

a Proportion volunteering for Married Volunteers $= P_1 = \frac{749}{1662} = .45$

b Square SE of proportion for Married Volunteers $= \frac{p1 \times q1}{N1} = \frac{\frac{749}{1662} \times \frac{913}{1662}}{1662} = .0001$

Question: Does marital status have an affect on whether or not a person volunteers?

Rejection of X^2 for two degrees of freedom at $p < .05 = 5.99$

The data found that the X^2 value for marital status and voluntarism was equal to 44.66, which rejects the Ho. In other words, at least two of the categories within marital status are different from one another "or at least one of the contrasts of the parameters, P_1, P_2, P_3 is significantly different from zero" (Marascuilo and McSweeney, 1977:144).

The comparison of contrasts can be seen in Table XB-2. "Values marked by an asterisk signify that the corresponding confidence intervals (Lower Limit and Upper Limit) are statistically significant at the 0.05 level and that the respective contrasts W = Pk - Pk' are non-zero in value" (Marascuilo and McSweeney, 1977:145).

Table XB-2 Confidence Intervals for the Simple Contrasts of Table XB-1

Contrast W	Estimate	Estimated Variance SE^2Q	Lower Limit	Upper Limit
$P_1 - P_2$	.15*	.0006	0.09	0.21
$P_1 - P_3$	.14*	.0009	0.07	0.21
$P_2 - P_3$	-.01	.0013	-0.10	0.08

Example of Calculations of Table XB-2

The estimate of the $P^1 - P^2$ contrast is .45 - .30 = .15 (From Table XB-1)

The estimated variance (SE^2Q) for the P1 - P2 contrast is calculated as follows:

$$SE^2Q = \frac{P1 \times Q1}{N1} + \frac{P2 \times Q2}{N2} = \frac{749 \times 913}{1662} + \frac{124 \times 295}{419} =$$

$$.0001 + .0005 = .0006$$

For determining the significance of the contrast estimates, the following calculations are performed. For example, if we wished to determine whether there were any differences between married and single volunteers, we would do the following:

x = (P1 - P2 Estimate) plus or minus the square root of chi square (at p less that .05, with 2 degrees of freedom) multiplied by the square root of the estimated variance of the P1 - P2 contrast.

x = .15 plus/minus (the square root of 5.99) x (the square root of .0006)

x = .15 plus/minus (2.45) (.0245)

The addition sign (+) is an indicator of the upper limit of the contrast while the minus sign (-) signifies the lower limit.

For the upper and lower limit calculations of the married versus single volunteers, the results are as follows:

Upper Limit = .15 + (2.45) (.0245)
= .15 + .06 = 0.21

Lower Limit = .15 - (2.45) (.0245)
= .15 - .06 = 0.09

As one can see from the calculations of the upper and lower limits, the contrast does not cross zero; this indicates a significant difference between married and single volunteer's participation rates.

A STUDY OF VOLUNTARISM IN RECREATION
- Results from the 1981 Public Opinion Survey on Recreation

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

By
Mary Jane Cox
Phil Kreisel

Prepared for
Alberta Recreation and Parks
Recreation Development Division
Planning Support Branch

October, 1984

A. INTRODUCTION

The objectives of the study were to: (1) Determine the relative proportion of people who could be considered volunteers and non-volunteers; (2) Provide profiles of volunteers and non-volunteers through a comparison of their demographic and socio-economic characteristics; (3) Find out the attitudes of volunteers and non-volunteers toward voluntarism; (4) Provide implications and recommendations based on those results.

The data upon which the conclusions are based were derived from the 1981 Public Opinion Survey on Recreation. This survey was mailed to a sample of 4,700 randomly selected Albertans in February of 1981. A total of 2,425 individuals responded, representing 51.6% of the original sample.

In order to identify the volunteers and non-volunteers within the sample, all respondents were asked to acknowledge whether or not they worked as a volunteer within the past twelve months (section 4, question 5 of questionnaire). Those respondents who answered "yes" to this question were considered to be volunteers, while those who answered "no" were considered to be non-volunteers. The profiles of both types of respondents were derived through a comparison of the various socio-demographic characteristics. These included: life cycle variables (age, sex, marital status, family type); socio-economic status (education, income, occupation); and residential variables (urban/rural setting, geographical regions, type of dwelling, ownership of dwelling, length of time in dwelling and length of time in province).

Volunteers and non-volunteers were also asked to agree or disagree with five general attitudinal statements on voluntarism (section 3, question 7 of questionnaire). These statements were: volunteers are given meaningful tasks; volunteers have an important role in the community; the personal sacrifices of volunteering make it difficult for the individual to participate as a volunteer; volunteers have a chance to learn new things; and the number of people who are willing to volunteer is decreasing. Comparisons were made between the volunteer and non-volunteer with respect to each of these five statements on voluntarism. Comparisons were also made between the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and these five attitudinal statements. Relationships between the attitudinal statements on voluntarism and actual volunteer participation were measured through the use of chi-square techniques.

This Executive Summary is condensed from an original larger technical report prepared by Mary Jane Cox and Phil Kreisel for Alberta Recreation and Parks. It should be noted that the sources for the information found in the "Literature Review" section of this Executive Summary have not been cited. However, an extensive literature review with referenced sources and bibliography can be found in the technical report. Reference should also be made to the technical report for detailed information on methods of data treatment, analyses and statistical tables.

B. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Volunteer Participation

The Canadian and American studies that have examined rates of volunteer participation generally show varying results depending on how voluntarism has been defined and operationalized. These findings are as follows:

i. Voluntarism as membership in voluntary associations - Canadian and American Studies have indicated that anywhere from 40 to 60 percent of the adult population have memberships in voluntary associations.

ii. Voluntarism as active voluntary work in organizations - American and Canadian studies have shown results varying from 15.2% of working age Canadians to 25% of Americans (over age 13) doing some sort of active volunteer work.

iii. Voluntarism as active voluntary work plus additional voluntary acts - When charitable giving or individual informal acts of voluntarism are added, rates of participation are generally greater, rising to approximately 50% of the populations studied.

a. Types of Volunteer Participation

A few studies have looked at the rates of participation in various functional sectors of volunteer action (eg. religion, education, politics, etc.). These studies have shown that volunteer participation in the leisure and recreation sector is moderately high, although it generally falls behind other sectors such as religion, health and education as noted in some American studies and behind the social/welfare and religious sectors as noted in a recent Statistics Canada study. It is of some significance in the latter study that the leisure sector attracted almost 25% of those Canadians doing volunteer work.

Studies on rates of affiliation (membership) in various types of voluntary associations have shown affiliation rates in sports related clubs or associations being moderately high, averaging a rate of 12% in an American study and 14% in a Canadian study and ranking fourth in both studies behind other voluntary association sectors.

2. Role Concepts and Benefits of Voluntarism

In general, the literature suggests that participation in voluntary associations is both beneficial to the individual as well as to the community at large. This concept has been developed under the Integration Hypothesis. This theory has both a social-psychological perspective which focuses on the benefits of voluntarism to the individual, and a sociological perspective which focuses on the significance of voluntary associations within society.

A number of studies suggest that participation in voluntary associations is integrative for the individual; that is, it provides a means by which he or she can attain such feelings as: self-determination, personal satisfaction, competence, happiness, as well as a feeling of confidence within society.

Participation in voluntary associations has also been associated with making the community a better place in which to live. Studies have linked participation in voluntary associations with those individuals having less prejudicial attitudes against ethnic groups and increased positive feelings and attitudes toward the community.

Studies have indicated that voluntary associations are beneficial to society in many ways. One of these beneficial effects consists of the voluntary association's role in the socialization of individuals into the proper norms and values of society. In addition, they can serve to establish and support institutions and further, they can be innovative in encouraging social change in society.

The provision of services by voluntary associations is also instrumental in providing important economic benefits to the community. Voluntary associations can aid a community by offering quality services for little or no renumeration to its membership. A recent study also has shown that volunteer work has considerable economic impact when calculated into the Canadian Gross National Product; the total value being estimated at 1,045 million in 1971, which was 1.1% of Canada's GNP for that year.

3. Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

Little research has been conducted that measures the actual attitudes that people have towards voluntarism. Much of the practitioner literature on voluntarism seems to make the assumption that because of all the contributions that voluntarism can make to the community, the general public will also agree that "volunteers are important to the community".

Although most of the literature proclaims the positive benefits of voluntarism, some studies suggest that negative attitudes do exist. For example, it has been suggested that direct service voluntarism is often equated with the negative image of a second class working status or in some cases, solely the pre-occupation of middle or higher class women with "time on their hands."

Studies on the volunteer's attitudes toward his/her own participation in voluntary associations have shown varying results - both positive and negative. Some studies have shown that volunteers have definite positive attitudes in terms of their own perceived individual rewards as well as their belief that they play an important role in the community.

Research has also looked at the negative attitudes of present and past volunteers towards participation. Negative attitudes have centred around such things as: lack of adequate training and organization of volunteers, a perception of too much control by professionals or higher status volunteers, and lack of recognition for volunteer effort.

In terms of the volunteer's reasons for discontinuing volunteering, studies have suggested that time constraints (ie. lack of time); job, school and family responsibilities; and volunteer burnout to be the most prevalent factors causing volunteers to cease volunteering.

4. Volunteer Motivation

A number of motivational theories have been put forward to explain why volunteers participate. Two theories that show some empirical backing in voluntarism research include the Social Exchange Theory and theories of Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivation. The Social Exchange Theory suggests that behaviour is intentionally directed toward goals that are rewarding as opposed to those that are not. It contends that volunteers will invest their energy into obtaining positive goals at a particular cost to themselves as long as the eventual rewards are at least commensurate with the costs.

Another major theoretical explanation of volunteer motivation relates voluntarism to both instrumental or extrinsic (work-like) motives and expressive or intrinsic (play-like) motives. A few authorities contend that people may be motivated to join voluntary organizations in order to obtain intrinsic or extrinsic rewards or a combination of both. Certain types of organizations are more likely to provide extrinsic types of rewards (eg. instrumental voluntary associations) as opposed to intrinsic types of rewards (expressive voluntary associations). People may be attracted to either type of organization because of their own expressive or instrumental orientation(s) to life.

Many studies seem to indicate that volunteer motivation comprises a combination of altruistic, self-interest and sociability motives. It was thought at one time that altruism was the all-pervasive motivation in voluntarism. Increasingly, however, authorities suggest that self-interest motivations are becoming more important to volunteers.

There is a growing contention that people are seeking out the self-actualizing and intrinsically rewarding potential of voluntarism. Voluntarism may be becoming an activity that people are pursuing for its own sake. In practice, recreational agencies are already taking the stance that forms of volunteer service are in fact recreational to those involved. This is evidenced by numerous recreation practitioner articles which suggest that the use of volunteers is an important aspect of many recreation programs, servicing both the recreational needs of the volunteer and the program in which he or she is involved.

5. Socio-Economic and Demographic Correlates of Participation

a. Life Cycle Variables

As a single variable, age shows a definite relationship with voluntary participation. Most studies have suggested a curvilinear relationship with participation lower in the younger and older age groups and highest in the middle age groups.

Family life cycle consists of an individual's position in various stages of family role obligations. Studies have shown that similar to the variable of age, there is a curvilinear trend between an individual's position in the family life cycle and his or her affiliation in voluntary organizations.

Research on differences between male and female participation in voluntary associations suggests a number of trends. When affiliation in voluntary associations is measured, most studies have found that men have a higher tendency to belong to voluntary associations and to have multiple memberships than do women. However, when the activity or amount of time spent participating is measured, studies indicate that women contribute equal or more time in voluntary associations than do men. There is some evidence to suggest that differences in participation between the two sexes may be expected to decrease in the future as females take on increasingly equal roles in the workplace and the community.

There appears to be a definite relationship between marital status and participation in voluntary associations. A number of studies have shown that married persons tend to have more memberships and be more active in voluntary associations than single people or those who are divorced, widowed or separated.

b. Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic status (SES) consists of the variables: education, income, and occupation. Research indicates a definite positive relationship between SES and volunteer participation. People of middle class or higher socio-economic status have a greater tendency to participate in voluntary associations than those people of lower socio-economic status.

c. Residential Variables

Studies have not shown any definite or conclusive relationships between volunteer participation and the following variables: size of community, rural versus urban differences, and type of residence. However, there is some evidence that suggests that length of residence is positively correlated with affiliation in voluntary associations.

C. RESULTS

1. Proportion of Volunteers and Non-Volunteers

The study provided information on the proportion of respondents who were considered to be "volunteers" as opposed to "non-volunteers". The results showed that 967 respondents were volunteers, representing 40.6 percent of the sample, compared to 1412 respondents who were non-volunteers (59.4% of the sample). Given that 40.6 percent is representative of the percentage of Albertans who are volunteers, this would indicate a relatively large volunteer work force in the province and a significant contribution to Alberta's communities and services.

2. Volunteers and Non-Volunteers: Socio-Demographic Comparisons

The analysis of the data revealed that volunteers and non-volunteers differed with respect to socio-demographic make-up. Most volunteers were found to be between the ages of 25 to 64, with a major peak in volunteering occurring between the ages of 35-44. They were also likely to be married and have children. Non-volunteers had very different life cycle characteristics. The age of the non-volunteer was likely to be under 24 or over 65 and they tended to be single rather than married. If non-volunteers were married, they would likely have no children. Non-volunteers who had children were likely to be single parents. Sex was not a distinguishing factor in differentiating between volunteers and non-volunteers.

With respect to socio-economic status and residence, volunteers tended to have a university education, earned above $20,000 a year (and in particular, between $20,000 and $30,000), and were either in occupations that required post secondary education (professionals, managerial, technicians) or were farmers. Proportionately, it was found that volunteers were more likely to come from rural areas or small urban centers and tended to be home owners and longer term residents. Non-volunteers tended to have a high school education or less, earned less than $10,000 a year, and were in blue collar occupations (clerical, tradesmen, foremen or unskilled labour). Non-volunteers were likely to be from major urban cities, and were largely apartment dwellers. It was also found that non-volunteers were shorter term residents of the province and the dwellings in which they lived.

3. Attitudinal Difference Between Volunteers and Non-Volunteers

With respect to the five attitudes toward voluntarism, some interesting trends of agreement and disagreement were noted for both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. There was a very high percentage of agreement with the attitudes that "volunteers are important to the community" and "one can learn new things through voluntarism" by both volunteer respondents (96.8% and 95.4%, respectively) and non-volunteer respondents (87.9% and 85.7%, respectively). The only difference was that for both statements, the percentage of volunteers agreeing was slightly higher than for non-volunteers. Volunteer and non-volunteer respondents also tended to be in agreement with the attitude "volunteers are given meaningful tasks". Again, volunteers (75.4%) agreed with this attitude more than non-volunteers (60.2%). However, the amount of agreement expressed by both groups was less than that registered for the previous two attitudes.

With respect to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult", volunteer respondents were more likely to disagree (55.6%) with the attitude rather than to agree (32.2%) with it, while non-volunteers were more likely to agree (49%) with the attitude than disagree (23.3%) with it. Finally, the data revealed that a moderate amount of agreement was expressed with the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing" by both volunteers (65.1%) and non-volunteers (58.4%).

4. Socio-Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

A comparison of the attitudes toward voluntarism with the various socio-demographic characteristics of the entire sample confirmed many of the previous differences noted between the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. For example, the characteristics of those most likely to express positive attitudes towards voluntarism conformed to the profiles of volunteers while those agreeing with the negative attitudes tended to have characteristics of non-volunteers.

With respect to the attitude "volunteers are given meaningful tasks", there was high agreement expressed by couples who had children and single parents, as well as by residential home owners.

No significant differences were uncovered within the life cycle variables, socio-economic status variables, and residential variables for the attitude "volunteers are important to the community." However it was found that in almost all instances, the socio-demographic categories associated with the volunteer respondents registered a slightly higher percentage of agreement than those categories linked with the non-volunteer respondents.

With respect to the attitude "one can learn new things through volunteering", participants who were between the ages of 35-44 years were slightly more likely to agree with this statement in comparison to other age groups, particularly those over 65.

The findings associated with the attitude "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult" also reinforced some previous findings with respect to the socio-demographic characteristics of the volunteer and non-volunteer. Respondents who were married and those between the ages of 35 to 44 disagreed with this statement more than respondents from the other age groups and those who were separated, divorced, or widowed. Respondents who agreed with this attitude tended to be those under 35 years of age, those who had high school education or less, and those coming from the cities of Calgary and Edmonton.

Those most likely to agree with the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing" were single parents and those living in mobile homes. Those less likely to agree with this statement were people with university education.

D. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Volunteers and Non-Volunteers

a. Life Cycle Variables

When combining the findings of age, marital status, household type and age of household members, it would appear evident that younger middle aged people (age 35 to 44) who are married and have school aged children have a greater propensity to volunteer. Thus participation seems to reach its peak at this stage of the life cycle when people are becoming entrenched in important roles associated with career, family and community. Volunteer participation is an activity that fits in with these role obligations.

The presence of school children within volunteer households may make people more aware of their own parental and community roles, particularly with respect to youth leadership activities (eg. scouts, 4-H Club, minor sports, etc.). Many feel that they owe an obligation to "take their turn" in terms of being leaders in youth service programs. Young single people who have not yet entered this middle life stage have less of a tendency to volunteer. Married couples with no children seem to have a slightly greater propensity to volunteer than singles which may reflect increasing career responsibilities and correspondingly more pressure to be affiliated with voluntary associations. Although volunteer participation by young married couples with pre-school children is reasonably high, greater participation particularly by women, may be dampened by constraints placed on them by young children. They may also lack incentive to participate as leaders in youth programs until their children are old enough to participate. Single parents may be even further constrained by their family and career responsibilities which prevent them from having a great deal of free time to devote to volunteer activities. As people enter the older life stages, disengagement from some of the roles associated with family and career occurs and this is reflected in their declining volunteer participation.

Recommendations

1. Municipal recreation departments and provincial recreation associations may obtain greater success if they direct their recruitment drives toward younger middle aged couples (35 to 44) with school aged children. Least success will be obtained from the youngest and oldest age groups (up to 24 and over 64 years) and from those single people with no children.

2. Other groups that bear secondary consideration for recruitment strategies are the 25 to 34 and 45 to 64 age groups, married people, and couples with children of other age categories.

b. Socio-Economic Status

The study findings suggested a positive relationship between socio-economic status and participation as a volunteer. Volunteers were more likely to have higher education and income and were involved in white collar and technical professions. All of these factors were related, in so far as the white collar professions generally require a higher level of education and earn middle class incomes or greater. On the other hand, greater percentages of non-volunteers were less educated, had lower incomes and came from blue collar, clerical and unskilled occupations.

More specific findings on incomes showed that there was a concentrated precentage of volunteers in the $20,000 to $30,000 income level. This lower middle income bracket may correspond to younger middle aged people who are becoming established in roles associated with career, family and the community, and their volunteer activity is reflected in this.

The findings on occupational status generally indicated a positive relationship between the higher education occupations (ie. Technicians, Managerial and Professional) and volunteer participation. However, there was also a high tendency for Farmers to be volunteers. These occupations would seem to represent a highly integrated section of society which adheres to middle class values, roles and responsibilities. One of these middle class responsibilities is represented in voluntary action.

The positive relationship between socio-economic status and volunteer participation suggests that middle class people will often use voluntarism as a means of supporting their own lifestyles as well as community functions and goals. It is further suggested that because of their education, skills and social status, the middle class will also have the confidence necessary to attain these goals for themselves and their community.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that recreation associations and agencies that have contact with rural areas consider people in the farming occupation as a good source of volunteers.

2. Although people of all socio-economic statuses volunteer, those most likely to do so tend to come from the more educated middle class who are involved in the white collar and technical occupations. Therefore, it is recommended that recruitment strategies be directed towards these people.

c. Residential Variables

The findings respecting rural and urban differences suggested that a significantly higher percentage of rural people were volunteers as compared to urban people. Urban people were much more likely to be non-volunteers than rural people. This trend also corresponded with the volunteer participation patterns in the various geographic regions in Alberta. The higher percentages of volunteers were from the more rural areas such as St. Paul, Grande Prairie and High Prairie followed by slightly lower percentages from areas containing small cities such as Lethbridge and Red Deer. The lowest percentages of volunteers came from the major urban centres of Edmonton and Calgary. This trend suggests a negative relationship between population density and propensity to volunteer in Alberta.

There also appeared to be a correlation between volunteer participation and the various residential variables related to dwelling type and length of residency. Higher percentages of volunteers were single family home owners, while non-volunteers were more likely to be apartment dwellers. In addition, an individual who resided in his/her dwelling and in the province for a long period of time was more likely to be a volunteer. It would appear that those who are more firmly established in their communities are most likely to volunteer. This type of person is also likely to correspond to the stable middle class and middle aged family person.

Recommendations

1. Recreation agencies and associations which deal with rural populations, towns or smaller cities, or less populated regions of Alberta should take note of the higher degree of willingness of their local populations to do volunteer work.

2. Recruitment strategies might have more success in more firmly established districts or communities, particularly those in which people own single family houses.

2. Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

a. Positive Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

The positive attitude statements generally elicited agreement from most respondents. In particular, there was a very high percentage of agreement with the attitudes that "volunteers are important to the community" and "one can learn new things through voluntarism" by both the volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. This high amount of agreement suggests that for the most part, people in Alberta seem to feel that voluntarism is a beneficial mechanism, both in the functioning of a community as well as fulfilling individual needs and interests. Further, this attitude generally exists regardless of whether or not a person actually participates as a volunteer.

Volunteer and non-volunteer respondents also tended to be in agreement with the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks". While agreement among respondents was moderately high with respect to this attitude, the fact that there was less agreement here compared to the previous two positive attitudes may suggest a number of things. It may reflect some people's experiences with volunteering in which they found volunteer tasks to be less meaningful than desired (i.e. menial or non-productive). Alternatively, some volunteers may perceive that their tasks are not meaningful to the agency simply because volunteer managers fail to provide enough feedback and recognition as to the integral role they play in the agency. It may also reflect a general lack of public awareness of the important and often sophisticated tasks that volunteers perform in an agency or community.

Recommendations:

1. With respect to the attitude that "volunteers are given meaningful tasks," two recommendations are put forward:

    i. It is recommended that voluntary associations and agencies provide appropriate tasks that will be meaningful to the volunteers themselves as well as to the organization. In other words, tasks that give the volunteer a sense of intrinsic satisfaction and personal fulfillment will be more meaningful to the volunteer than tasks or duties which the volunteer finds dull or trivial and he/she dislikes doing. Providing the volunteer with satisfying duties will also aid in the retention of volunteers.

    ii. It is recommended that volunteer associations and agencies develop methods by which the volunteer is given feedback and recognition for the work that he provides to the community or agency. Government departments such as Alberta Recreation and Parks should try to provide ideas to these agencies on how to recognize or reward volunteers; further, they should conduct publicity programs to make the public aware of the important tasks that volunteers perform in the community.

b. Pessimistic Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

With respect to the attitude that "personal sacrifices make volunteering difficult", volunteer respondents were more likely to disagree with the attitude rather than to agree with it. Non-volunteers, on the other hand, were more likely to agree with the attitude than disagree with it. The findings here have a few implications. Among volunteers, the moderately high disagreement with the attitude suggests that many of those who volunteer seem to be able to balance voluntarism with other life activities. However, the finding that one third of the volunteers agreed with this attitude indicates that some people may have a problem with the amount of time that they have available for volunteering. This may suggest that some people may be dissatisfied with their volunteer experiences (i.e. suffer from "burnout"), but continue to volunteer because they feel they have to - rather than because they want to. An alternate explanation is that people may enjoy volunteering but may have overriding time commitments to other interests in their lives (i.e. work or family) which make it difficult for them to volunteer. Among non-volunteers, a moderately high agreement suggests that the idea of personal sacrifices may be a factor that keeps people from volunteering. Research confirms that volunteer dropout and lack of willingness to join is caused by such factors as: lack of time, being too busy, job, school and family responsibilities, and personal reasons.

Finally, with respect to the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing", it was found that there was a moderate amount of agreement with this attitude for both volunteer and non-volunteer respondents. Among volunteers, the relatively high amount of agreement may be due to the overabundance of work that they are doing. If they are given more tasks than they can handle, it is possible that people might wonder if there are fewer volunteers around to share the workload. Alternatively, this may reflect actual problems with volunteer turnover and recruitment which may promote the attitude that volunteers are becoming harder to find. Regardless of the origin of this negative attitude, a concerted public relations program could conceivably promote a more positive image of voluntarism and do justice to the large number of people who do contribute their time.

The responses to both pessimistic attitude statements suggest that there may be problems with volunteer management (or lack thereof) in the volunteer sector. Two identified areas of concern are volunteer recruitment and problems with turnover. There is ample evidence in this report to suggest that much of Alberta's population has done volunteer work in the recent past. In order to further tap this potential volunteer force, it is necessary to understand volunteer recruitment strategies and effectively direct these toward potential volunteer populations. In addition, some emphasis in volunteer programs should be placed on the prevention of volunteer burnout and dropout as well as the retention of volunteers in fulfilling tasks.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that government departments such as Alberta Recreation and Parks instigate a public relations program that promotes a positive image of the volunteer movement and those volunteers who are willing to participate.

2. It is recommended that volunteer associations and agencies become knowledgeable about volunteer management methods and techniques.

3. It is recommended that government departments such as Alberta Recreation and Parks assist volunteer associations and agencies by offering them accessible and ongoing volunteer management training courses.

3. Socio-Demographic Trends and Attitudes Toward Voluntarism

In general, the socio-demographic characteristics were not found to be very influential with respect to the amount of agreement or disagreement expressed on the five attitudes toward voluntarism.

The significant differences that occurred were found within the socio-demographic variables: age, marital status, education, provincial regions and home-ownership. Many of these differences reflected similar trends that were noted earlier in the report when socio-demographic characteristics were compared with whether or not a respondent was a volunteer.

The findings did suggest however, that those types of people expressing negative attitudes towards voluntarism may require special attention by the volunteer sector. For example, single parents tended to express the attitude that "the number of people willing to volunteer is decreasing." These people may be finding that their own personal situation warrants assistance from volunteer agencies and they have noticed more difficulty in obtaining help in recent years. Similarly, other types of people were more likely to agree that "personal sacrifices make it difficult to volunteer" (i.e. younger people and the less educated). This suggests that steps should be taken to make it possible for these types of people to participate in volunteer activities without personal hardship.

Recommendations:

1. It is recommended that government and volunteer agencies catalogue the types of services that volunteers provide and make this information available to the general public - particularly to those who may be in need of the services. It may also be necessary to develop and target volunteer programs that meet the special needs of the single parent.

2. It is recommended that volunteer agencies and association consider adjusting their volunteer programs to make them more flexible for those types of people who would like to volunteer but find the personal sacrifices of voluntarism too much to handle.